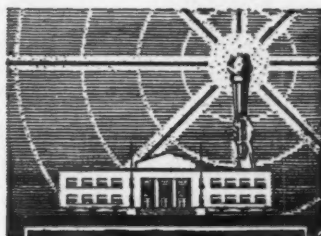


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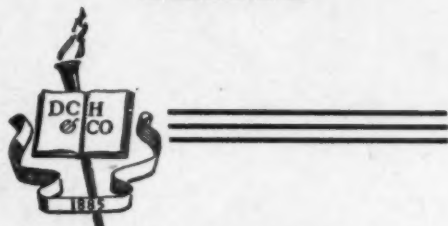
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JANUARY, 1953

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The Social Studies

VOLUME XLIV, NUMBER 1

Continuing The Historical Outlook

JANUARY, 1953

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As the Editor Sees It

We recently accompanied a group of Rotarians on a visit to the new United Nations buildings in New York City. It was the first view we had had of the very impressive setting of the world organization, and the reactions shown by what was probably a fairly typical group of middle-class Americans were interesting. As might be expected, its first concern was in the physical surroundings. The men observed the highly functional style of architecture with mixed feelings; they were interested in the materials used, the height of the great glass front of the lobby, the heating and air conditioning. They were duly impressed by the beauty of the chief meeting rooms, which look out so closely on the East River that the masts and funnels of tugs and other small craft seemed almost to be within arm's length of the tall windows. The combination of dignity, artistry and functionalism in these rooms appealed to them as a setting in which great things ought to be done.

The members of the group were able to attend brief meetings of several committees, though they were disappointed in the sudden cancellation of the General Assembly session for that day. The remarkable system of simultaneous translation fascinated them, and the appearance of Mrs. Roosevelt was a high point. They particularly noted the extent to which the pretty girl guide was imbued with a faith in the great destiny of the U. N., for truth to tell, there was some scepticism on this point among the group. One member, in fact, expressed the opinion that the buildings would make an excellent apartment project in a few years.

It was not that the visiting Rotarians were opposed to the United Nations or to the idea of Americans working through it. It was rather that they seemed to feel an undefined air of unreality, of fantasy about it. When most of us visit the Capitol in Washington, it is with a certain feeling of proprietorship and familiarity even though it is our first visit. We

know that we are seeing a going concern, an established operation in which we have a definite part. This feeling of comfortable stability appeared to be lacking among the U. N. visitors. They were impressed but not assured.

Part of this feeling of strangeness could properly be charged to the rather foreign air which naturally characterizes the U. N. But mostly it stemmed from an inner doubt that any real good could ever come from an organization in which there was no real compulsion to cooperate. The utter failure of 55 members to compel the other 5 to agree on a course of action to end the war in Korea has brought the United Nations to the nadir of its short existence and all the beauty and impressiveness of the meeting place could do little to convince our average Americans that the U. N. was a real and permanent part of their lives.

We have heard many debates on the value of the United Nations. None of them has produced a single convincing argument to show that the U. N. is detrimental to the good of the world. The worst that can be said of it is that it may not accomplish as much good as we hoped it would. But if it does no more than replace the evil, secret and Machiavellian diplomacy of the past with a system of international relationships conducted in the open, it will be worth all its costs. Many of us are beginning to realize that mankind *has* moved forward, and that international organization has come to stay. The habits of thinking of centuries cannot be changed overnight, and a smoothly working machine for transacting world affairs may not come on the first trial, or the second. We move by steps, but we are moving. The day will surely come when our group of average Americans will visit the world's headquarters with a sense of pride and proprietorship, feeling that it is truly a functioning part of their social machinery. We must not doubt that it will happen, but only ask—how soon?

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The Social Studies

VOLUME XLIV, NUMBER 1

JANUARY, 1953

Voltaire as Educator

MADELEINE DUMONT

Hampstead, England

Voltaire as a historian, as a pamphleteer, as the defender of the downtrodden, as a playwright, as Frederick the Great's friend, enemy and correspondent, as indeed, the writer of a vast number of letters to a wide circle of friends and acquaintances, as the author of cynical tales, as a wise, witty and courageous man, all these things spring to the mind. But not Voltaire as an educationist. Yet, here and there in the fifty-four volumes of his works, there is much to be found on education—on schools, on syllabi, on child psychology, on the teacher, on methods of teaching, so that, although he has written no actual treatise on the subject, there is scarcely a point with which he has not dealt, on which he has not clearly expressed an opinion. It is possible, therefore, to get a very clear picture of the educationist Voltaire and, from the materials he has provided, it would be possible to compile a report on contemporary education, and a scheme for an improved educational system.

His various pronouncements fall naturally into two groups: criticism and suggestion.

An educationist's criticisms of the educational system of his period are often more revealing than any plans he may himself have formulated for an ideal educational scheme. It is often easier to understand what manner of man he was when one considers his reactions to an existing state of things than when one considers his own plans. These, after all, may fall far short of his ideal and might, indeed, have failed entirely to satisfy him had he had the opportunity of seeing them in operation.

Any scheme, moreover, becomes outmoded and after even a short lapse of time what was most up to date and original may well come to appear jejune and obsolete and so give an entirely wrong impression of its originator.

This is less likely to happen to the critic whose points of contact with his successors are more apparent. For these reasons, it has seemed best to take Voltaire's criticisms first, his suggestions second.

On examining his criticisms, it at once becomes obvious that Voltaire's view was a very modern one in many ways, whether applied to eighteenth century education, or, more widely, to educational principles in general.

His criticisms, indeed, were threefold: he complained that education was too pedantic—today we might say too academic; that it was divorced from life; and that it was not sufficiently child-centred, not, that is, conditioned by the needs, desires, interests and natural aptitudes of each individual child.

For Voltaire, there was no greater insult than that of "pedant" and he deplored that so much of learning should consist in the use of incomprehensible jargon and in the long study of absurdities: "An unintelligible jargon and a long study of absurdities is what brings a man the greatest honor all the world over." It horrified him that people should have so distorted a sense of values that such things should be possible. His attitude towards pedants is to be found in his play *L'Envieux*, where "bel esprit de collègue" is used as a term of

abuse and in a letter to M. de la Chalotais he quoted La Fontaine's:

"Je ne connais de bête pire au monde

Que l'écolier, si ce n'est le pédant"

and pointed out that, while it was a good thing to have taken from the Jesuits their right to teach (a statement contradicted elsewhere) that reform was not far-reaching enough and, in time, all pedants would have to be eliminated from the profession. He gave the warning that academic knowledge alone was not enough and that discrimination and common sense were not the prerogatives of the classical scholar—"Do not take it upon yourself to think that when you leave school you alone have acquired the right to express your opinions, nor that from the study of Latin one always derives great knowledge or keenness of mind: on the contrary it can make one very dull." He did not go so far as to share the belief of so many people of our own time that in ignorance lies, not only bliss, but also efficiency. Voltaire was not so modern as that; but one finds in him the awareness, of which this modern view is merely a rather unconsidered exaggeration, that a knowledge of facts is useless without understanding and without the ability to apply them to the everyday needs and problems of life.

It was on that basis that his criticisms of syllabi were made. He considered that the syllabus was not directed to the practical needs of the pupil, was out of touch with current problems, and offered no preparation for the life of the average citizen. For instance, in the *Dictionnaire Philosophique* he pointed out the absurdity of the legal training of the time which, he stated, consisted solely in the study of the laws of ancient Rome, and gave neither time nor attention to the legal code of France. In the same article, he complained that he himself had been taught nothing of the history of France, of its geography, nothing about the principal laws of his country nor anything about its "interests" which may, I think, be interpreted to mean its economics. In short, "je savais du Latin et des sottises."

His sweeping statement that class instruction was necessarily bad need not be taken too seriously. He said it was bad because it is absurd to teach the same thing to a hundred

children, every one of whom has different talents and aptitudes; but far from recommending the abolition of schools in favour of the private tutor, an idea obviously impracticable except for a very small minority, he made many constructive suggestions for their improvement. This criticism, however, is another pointer which shows quite clearly the direction in which he would have made a change. It was wrong, in his view, as it is in that of twentieth-century educationists, that all children should, of necessity, be made to receive the same sort of teaching, and he wanted education to be child-centred and varied to the needs of the individual and of the period.

Voltaire never accepted the idea that all men are equally intelligent. He made this clear in his ridicule of Jean Jacques Rousseau and in his refutations of Helvetius, where he pointed out that, given four hundred pupils, brought up together, under the same teachers, and subjected to the same discipline, only five or six will make really outstanding progress, whereas the majority will be made up of the mediocre among whom there will be degrees of mediocrity. This proved, he said, that minds vary more than faces. He considered, moreover, that experience had shown that all minds are not equally well-suited, say to scientific study, and that aptitude for this or that subject was not merely a matter of training and education. It was, in fact, impossible to create intelligence. Similarly Voltaire thought also that it was impossible to change character.

On the other hand, and within these limitations, he had an intense belief in the power of education, a belief which came out, not only in those of his works which are related to the subject, but also in his plays, his poems, his short stories. In his play *Charlot* one finds the following assertions: "Any type of character, no matter how bad, will respond to education." And "Defects of the mind can be cured." In his tragedy *Don Pèdre* he blamed feudal education for turning men into beasts, "who, driven by fanaticism turn on every form of government."

Mostly, however, it was of the power of education for good that he treated. If nature

cannot be changed, it can at least be directed and led, and the importance of early guidance cannot be exaggerated. Hence his advice to parents to start the children's education from their earliest years, to study their disposition, their talents, their inclinations and temperament, not in order to thwart them, but so as to guide them wisely. The mainsprings of character are innate and cannot be altered, but opinions, ideas, ideals, and a philosophy of life are acquired. Whether the innate or the acquired is the more important in Voltaire's views is not left in doubt. He postulates, it is true, the existence of a fundamental core of character which can be modified and guided but not altered; but he comes back time after time to the theme of the educability of man. That, in fact, according to Voltaire, is one of the weaknesses of the human race and may explain how it is that there are so few men of real originality in the world; why nearly all think, feel and behave according to the promptings of custom, habit—and education. "How clear it is, then, that men are actuated by upbringing, background and prejudice." A child is, by nature, imitative and his development is determined by his family background and by his social environment, that is, by what he sees and hears. "Education is everything. It is our forefathers' hands which first engraved on our childish hearts those lines which time and example carve ever more deeply, and which perhaps God alone could efface." Full use could and should be made of this predisposition in educational matters.

The same theme recurs in *Le Droit du Seigneur* where two of the servants, discussing their masters, agree that, on the whole, the masters are superior to them in a variety of ways; not only in intelligence, but also in having higher ideals and nobler sentiments and this they attribute to the care which has been taken of their education from their earliest youth, and to the fact that they are taught to think. There is little doubt that this expresses Voltaire's own views, and it may explain the recurrence of the subject of education in his works.

In an educational programme, Voltaire would place character training first in impor-

tance. There is a point in *Zadig* which might be taken as Voltaire's advice to parents when choosing a school for their children. A widow, having two suitors, is to marry the one who will give her child the best education. The first would teach him grammar, dialectics, astrology, demonology, the difference between substance and accident, between abstract and concrete, between monads and pre-established harmony. The second would aim at making him grow up to be a just man and one worthy of having friends. Needless to say, the successful candidate is the latter.

Knowledge alone is useless. Without the art of living, it is a sterile, even a dangerous thing. Knowledge, on the other hand, though it cannot ever be a substitute for natural virtues can, and will, enhance them.

Two things are essential in a good education; things which may appear contradictory at first sight, but which are only superficially so; the first is a vocational bent, and the second disinterestedness. Voltaire said that a child should learn, from an early age, everything that will help him to succeed in whatever he is to take up in later life. On the other hand, he states emphatically that studies should never be undertaken out of vanity or self-seeking. Learning should never be regarded as a mere means of improving one's position. To treat it as such is an act of desecration. What Voltaire meant was, most probably, that studies should be undertaken only by those impelled to do so by a sincere love of knowledge but that a course of study, once undertaken, should be directed to meet the needs of the student. The two aims are therefore, not necessarily exclusive, though to achieve both calls for a delicate adjustment of syllabus and method, and for a considerable measure of individual choice of subjects in a school.

Voltaire dealt in some detail, as will be shown, with questions of syllabus, but his ideal for a perfect educational plan was revealed even more clearly, perhaps, in a letter to La Chalotais on the subject of the latter's plans for educational reform, for in it Voltaire expressed his conviction that La Chalotais, with his usual competency, would contrive to include in his scheme many things which would be of

use in later life. Whatever may be included to this end, however, and whatever the pupil's future aims may be, the most important thing of all to learn is an understanding of human nature: "Apprend, pauvre écolier, à connaître les hommes" wrote Voltaire in *L'Envieux*.

Physical education would not be neglected in Voltaire's scheme. I have found no direct recommendation to this effect but, indirectly, Voltaire showed the importance he attached to physical fitness and to regular exercise and his belief in the beneficial moral effect of these things. In *L'Education d'un Prince*, the tale is told of the prince who was stolen from his parents and, being of powerful physique, was made to be a mule-driver—evidently a strenuous life. The consequence of the unaccustomed exercise was that his muscles, which had become flabby as the result of the disgraceful slackness of his old way of life acquired a new vigour so that good came out of his misfortune, for he overcame his laziness.

There is also an indirect recommendation for the inclusion of practical work in the curriculum, at any rate in the elementary schools, for, in the article *Auteurs* in the *Dictionnaire Philosophique*, Voltaire strongly advocated that what he called the useful arts should be cultivated by all members of the "lower classes."

Voltaire was in favour of free schooling. This was not because such a measure satisfied his great sense of justice. Rather was it on account of the tremendous importance he attached to education, because he viewed it as a practical measure from which the State would profit in the long run as an investment, educated citizens being an asset to the state and a benefit to the nation as a whole.

Competition as between individuals or institutions Voltaire did not consider to be a bad thing in itself. Provided it did not degenerate into envy, he looked upon it as a natural and beneficial incentive and, although he was not in any way well-disposed towards the Jesuits, and had expressed approval of their expulsion, he actually made a plea that they should be allowed to continue teaching, solely on the grounds that they were in competition with the University. It follows from this, that

although he was a believer in free education, he was quite definitely against any sort of State monopoly in educational matters.

Besides recommending a limited amount of competition among pupils of all ages, he was also clearly of opinion that a fairly rigid discipline should be enforced. He looked upon this as a part of education for life. Man is born to suffering and needs to know how to bear adversity. "... Il faut savoir souffrir; l'homme est né en partie pour cela." He needs also to know how to obey if one is oneself to be obeyed. Indeed, the act of submission is good in itself, according to Voltaire, who considered that one great advantage we have over the Greeks in our education is that, whereas the Greeks imagined that they were surrounded by gods who favoured and protected their various talents and desires, a Christian society teaches submission of one's judgment and inclinations to a divine law which man in his weakness can never hope to understand and this is of the greatest value in a man's moral development and the training of his character.

Character training, preparation for life, vocational training, the disinterested search after knowledge, the development of all one's faculties, physical training, practical work, discipline, all these things should be included in one comprehensive educational scheme and, as well as all these things, good manners.

Voltaire believed that good manners were not a virtue in themselves, but that a knowledge of how to behave was an advantage at all times and in all situations. It was the next best thing to virtue in the broader sense of the word when this was absent, while it could but enhance it when it was present.

The syllabus which had incurred Voltaire's complete disapproval had been the one in which Latin had been the main, sometimes the only subject. Despite his many criticisms of contemporary education he admitted that, in the schools of his own time, considerable progress had already been made and said that a young man knew more, on leaving school, than all the philosophers of antiquity had ever known.

In a school curriculum Voltaire, unlike Rousseau, would place history first but he would not neglect any of the subjects which

are to be found now in a Grammar School. History, and more especially modern history, however, came first in importance. Ancient history was interesting but it had nothing else to recommend it as a school subject. A knowledge of modern history, however, was as essential to the citizen as it was to the statesman, making it possible for both to compare the laws, habits and customs of his own country with those of foreign countries, thus encouraging progress in arts, agricultural methods and commerce. It would enable the people to understand the origins, the virtues and the advantages of their own form of government. The comparison of the misery prevalent in times of unrest with the prosperity and happiness of calmer periods would tend to discourage all tendency to fury and passion in dispute, which seemed to increase in inverse ratio to the futility and uselessness of those things which aroused it.

A warning was given, however. All the principal historical facts must be taught, and judged, from an ethical standpoint and with a view to giving a greater understanding of the world and of world affairs. Unless this was done, unless the whole subject was treated with a high moral bias, the lessons would be useless. Fill a child's mind, if you will, says Voltaire, with examples of heroism and goodness in antiquity, though these are often far from proven and grossly exaggerated, but let there be room also for examples of virtue which are given to us by our own contemporaries. Modern history must come first, and training in citizenship.

Voltaire was in favour of giving religious instruction a place in the curriculum, but he was emphatically against any form of doctrinal instruction in the schools. The best form of religious instruction is the simplest, he said, the most universal, that based on natural law.

Voltaire included the study of English and Italian in France, at any rate for anyone who wished to be a good journalist, because much that is worth while has been written in those languages, and because genius is often untranslatable. Taking the principle which underlies this statement and applying it to school curricula in general, it can only be understood

as a recommendation to include one or more foreign languages in the school course, choosing those of the greatest cultural value.

In common with all the thinkers of his time, Voltaire had the greatest belief in the value and importance of scientific study. Mathematics and science would therefore figure largely in the timetable. He gave, moreover, hints on methods of teaching mathematics which sound very familiar to modern ears for he recommended the suggestions of a contemporary of his which consisted in going back to the earliest beginnings of man's evolution and following out the gradual development of his successive discoveries and the needs which occasioned them. A specimen lesson is given in full; this is based on a visit to the garden where tulips are to be planted out in a bed at regular intervals. The child's immediate reaction is a desire to know how many tulips there will be (we are not told what to do if the child is merely bored with the whole idea) and this provides the necessary incentive for a proper grasp of the sum to be worked out. It also ensures that the work done will prove enjoyable, and will therefore be enjoyed.

"It seems to me," said Voltaire, "that virtue, study and gaiety are three sisters who must not be separated."

Voltaire also had theories on the staffing of schools. Children were not to be entrusted to people who might gain personal advantage from deceiving their charges, or who had themselves been deceived. From what follows one gathers that Voltaire referred here to those whose religion is narrow and bigoted for he goes on to say that children should, on the contrary, be brought up in the knowledge of universal morality and taught to despise superstition. On that same basis, however, one may be justified in supposing that Voltaire would have objected to the idea of a Headmaster's or a Headmistress' salary being dependent on the number of children remaining in their school beyond the usual leaving age since such might not necessarily be the best course for every child.

He thought that teachers should be parents themselves, as experience of parenthood should give them a better understanding of how children should be taught.

As to the status a teacher should enjoy, one may perhaps correlate this to the importance Voltaire obviously attached to a teacher's function, rather than take entirely seriously a letter he wrote to a friend asking him if he could recommend a tutor for a young girl he proposed to adopt (Mademoiselle Corneille). Were it to be taken seriously, one would have to conclude that Voltaire considered teaching a very unspecialized task, and worthy only of the most meagre remuneration. Certainly, his requirements were modest in the extreme, for he wished to get in touch with some poor man who could read and write and possibly might also have a smattering of geography and history or at least be capable of learning these things so as to be able to teach one day what he had learnt the day before. In return he would have board and lodging and a very small salary, that being all Voltaire could afford, having ruined himself in building palatial houses, churches, theatres, etc. But the manner of the whole passage is jocular in the extreme and the matter does not correspond to the statements in more serious vein referred to earlier.

It is true that this particular teacher was wanted for a girl, and Voltaire's attitude towards the education of girls was more in tune with his own period than with ours, at any rate as regards its importance. He was not against education for girls. It is true that he said he would consider a woman who neglected her home in order to cultivate science as acting reprehensibly; but he pointed out that the spirit which inspires one to search after truth is the same as that which inspires one to fulfil one's duties. In a letter to Catherine II he expressed approval of a school established by her for the education of five hundred young ladies, and speaks with enthusiasm of the value of the study of elocution as a means of developing a gracious wit and a graceful body, of cultivating voice, deportment and good taste. Finally there is to be found some general advice in *L'Education des Filles*—"As the majority of girls are not destined for convent life, it is not in a convent that they should receive their education. They should, on the contrary,

be made familiar from an early age with everything that concerns society; they should be trained to fear the dangers of wit; they should be taken to the theatre to see all the plays which are capable of developing a good critical faculty and proper discrimination without, however, corrupting morals, and where the dangers of passion are displayed rather than its delights; where the proprieties are observed and where one can learn both how to think and how to express oneself."

He attached great importance to the educative value of the theatre, tragedy providing as it were a school of lofty sentiments and comedy a school of propriety. Although the theatre was usually regarded as a mere source of entertainment, Voltaire regarded it as more useful educatively than books.

Nowhere did he advocate that the same education should be given to girls and boys, but he wanted both to learn how to think.

Voltaire was no democrat, though his educational ideas represented much that was progressive and of a liberal trend. He was undemocratic in that he wanted the advantages of education to be limited to certain classes of the population. At least, he applauded the suggestion that the sons of farm-labourers should be debarred from study. This, of course, was possibly only from motives of expediency and not of principle, in which case it might be taken rather as a further proof of his belief in the educability of all men. The standpoint that, if everyone is educated, there will be no one left to perform unskilled tasks suggests strongly the theory that all can profit from education to the extent of being capable of work requiring a considerable degree of skill and intelligence. The idea that a certain proportion of the population should be reserved for the performance of essential unskilled work may, therefore, have no social significance, but Voltaire's "The endeavor to rise too high can but debase a man" certainly smacks somewhat of the desirability of remaining in the station into which one has been born. Nevertheless his philosophy of education may be summed up in his own words: "L'étude console de tout."

A Third World War In Communist Theory

MARGUERITE FISHER

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The motivations and assumptions of Stalin and the other leaders of the Soviet Union are questions of deep concern to Americans today. It has sometimes been our habit to regard the Soviet leaders as mere opportunists who follow the policy dictated by the exigencies of the moment, without reference to any framework of fundamental principles. Such a viewpoint has stemmed from lack of familiarity with the basic Communist doctrine, as embodied in the writings of Marx, Engels, Lenin and Stalin.

Communist theory must be taken with great seriousness. It is a formidable creed which provides an explanation of historical evolution, past, present and future. Furthermore, it furnishes a guide to action which enables its adherents to know where to go and what to do in meeting the situations which confront them. All this is offered in the guise of scientific materialism, based upon the inexorable operation of the laws of history. One of the first conclusions to emerge from a study of the writings of Stalin is the realization of his absorption in Marxist-Leninist thought and his dependence on its main principles. Communist theory thus helps to illuminate present events and provides the clues to many seeming contradictions in Soviet action.

Stalin reveals repeatedly throughout his writings the conviction that theory is vitally important. Marxist-Leninist theory, asserts Stalin, is the "science of proletarian revolution" which makes possible the prediction of the course of history. He denounces the tendency of practical workers to brush aside theory, in these words:¹

... "We know, too, that many of those who are engaged in the practical application of Leninism care little for theory, their attitude being due, above all, to the extent to which

their time is engrossed in practical work. My business here is to show that this peculiar view of Lenin and Leninism is utterly wrong-headed. It is quite out of touch with the world of reality. The endeavour of 'practical' persons to have no truck with 'theories' runs counter to the whole spirit of Leninism and is a great danger to our cause.

"Revolutionary theory is a synthesis of the experience of the working-class movement throughout all lands. . . . But theory becomes the greatest force in the working-class movement when it is inseparably linked with revolutionary practice; for it, and it alone, can give the movement confidence, guidance, and understanding of the inner links between events; it alone can enable those engaged in the practical struggle to understand the whence and the whither of the working-class movement."

Since Communist theory provides a framework which conditions and predisposes Soviet action, it is pertinent to examine the tenets of this theory with respect to the question of world war between capitalism and Communism. In Lenin's famous essay entitled *Imperialism, The Last Stage of Capitalism*, published in 1916, he asserted that the current worldwide warfare between the capitalist Great Powers marked the final stage of capitalism. Capitalism, however, will not be overthrown everywhere at the same time, warned Lenin. It will cling desperately to its last strongholds, confronting an ever-increasing area of Communist domination. The capitalist nations will realize that the very existence of Communism constitutes a graphic reminder of the weaknesses inherent in their system and an encouragement to the oppressed masses in all countries. Furthermore, said Lenin, as Com-

munism increases its jurisdiction it will withdraw vast areas from capitalist exploitation, and thus capitalism will be weakened still further.

During this period, maintained Lenin, particularly in his writings after 1917, there will be increasing tension between the two hostile camps into which the world is divided. The former imperialist wars between rival capitalist nations will now evolve into war between the two antagonistic systems, capitalism and Communism. As long as capitalism retains its strength anywhere in the world, Communist nations will be confronted by the constant danger of attack. Hence the Communist world faces, sooner or later, an inevitable war for survival in which it will be attacked by capitalist countries.

This assumption of irreconcilable hostility between the capitalist and Communist systems permeates much of the thinking of Stalin and other contemporary Soviet leaders. It is taken for granted that the Soviet Union can never be secure as long as it is surrounded by capitalist nations which are inevitably hostile. The final war between the two systems is portrayed as an inescapable part of the historical process, arising from the very nature of things.

As early as 1917 Lenin warned of the determination of international capitalism to destroy the new Soviet state:²

"... The victory of Socialism in one country does not at one stroke eliminate all war in general. On the contrary, it presupposes such wars. The development of capitalism proceeds very unevenly in the various countries. . . . From this it inevitably follows that Socialism cannot be victorious simultaneously in *all* countries. It will be victorious first in one, or several countries, while the others will for some time remain bourgeois or pro-bourgeois. This must not only create friction, but a direct striving on the part of the bourgeoisie of other countries to crush the victorious proletariat of the Socialist country. If we waged war under such circumstances, it would be a legitimate and just war. . . .

"Only after we have overthrown, finally vanquished and expropriated the bourgeoisie

of the whole world, and not only of one country, will wars become impossible."

Regularly, through the course of over three decades, Stalin has reaffirmed the foregoing Leninist doctrine and has warned of the danger of attack upon the Soviet Union by capitalist nations. In a report to Communist Party officials in Moscow in 1925 he declared:³

"A manifestation of capitalist stabilization may take the form of an alliance of the imperialist groups in the more advanced countries in order to make a concerted attack upon the Soviet Union. . . . Should the imperialist governments embark upon a war against the Soviet Union, this war would undoubtedly rally the workers of the capitalist countries and the peoples in colonial lands to the aid of the Soviet Union against the armies of imperialism. I do not need to stress the fact that, should an attack on Russia materialize, we should be prepared to use any and every means in order to open the floodgates of revolution throughout the world. . . ."

Even more bluntly, Stalin reiterated his warning in an interview with an American Labor Delegation in 1927:⁴

"It must not be imagined that the working-class in one country or in several countries will march towards Socialism, and still more to Communism, and that the capitalists of other countries will sit still with folded arms and look on with indifference. . . . Thus, in the further progress of development of the international revolution, two world centres will be formed: the Socialist centre, attracting to itself all the countries gravitating towards Socialism, and the Capitalist centre, attracting to itself all the countries gravitating towards capitalism. The fight between these two centres for the conquest of world economy will decide the fate of capitalism and Communism throughout the whole world, for the final defeat of world capitalism means the victory of Socialism in the arena of world economy."

In a report delivered in 1933 to the Central Committee of the Communist Party, Stalin emphasized the necessity for rapid industrialization of the Soviet Union in order to prepare

for the coming attack by hostile capitalist countries.⁵

"We are told . . . it would have been far better to have abandoned the policy of industrialization, the policy of expanding the production of means of production, or at least, to put that business in the background in order to produce more calico, boots, clothes and other articles of general use. . . . In a word, in that case we would have had military intervention, not pacts of non-aggression, but war, dangerous and fatal war, sanguinary and unequal war; for in that war we would have been almost unarmed in the face of the enemy, who has all the modern means of attack at his disposal."

Stalin has maintained that the U.S.S.R. must prepare for the inevitable struggle between Communism and capitalism in two ways: first, by building up its military and industrial strength, and second, by fostering revolutionary movements within the capitalist countries. In the *Foundations of Leninism*, Stalin developed his theory concerning Soviet security and its dependence upon the world revolutionary movement:⁶

"But the overthrow of the power of the bourgeoisie and the establishment of the power of the proletariat in one country alone does not, per se, mean the complete victory of Socialism. . . . Does this mean that the workers in one country alone, unaided, can definitely install Socialism guaranteed against intervention, guaranteed against a restoration of the old regime? No, certainly not. For that, the victory of the revolution, if not everywhere, at least in several countries, will be requisite. That is why the fostering of revolution, the support of revolution, in other countries, is incumbent upon the country where the revolution has triumphed. . . ."

In an essay entitled "The October Revolution and the Tactics of the Russian Communists," Stalin wrote in 1924:⁷

" . . . The very development of the world revolution, the very process of separating a number of additional countries from the imperialist States, will be all the quicker and more thorough-going in proportion as Social-

ism shall have struck root in the first victorious country, in proportion as that country shall have transformed itself into the base whence the development of the world revolution can proceed, in proportion as that country shall have become the crowbar getting a solid pry and setting the whole structure of imperialism rocking.

If it be true that a definitive victory of Socialism in the first country to win its freedom is not possible without the combined support of the proletarians of several lands, then it is no less true that the world revolution will develop with greater speed and completeness in proportion as the help given by the first liberated country to the workers and labouring masses of all the other lands shall be more effective.

* * * * *

"It is more than likely that, in the course of the development of the world revolution, there will come into existence—side by side with the foci of imperialism in the various capitalist lands . . . foci of socialism in various Soviet countries, and a system of these foci throughout the world. As the outcome of this development, there will ensue a struggle between the rival systems, and its history will be a history of the world revolution."

The relationship between liberation movements in colonial areas and the final disintegration and defeat of imperialist capitalism was noted by Lenin in the early nineteen hundreds. Whether these liberation movements were bourgeois or proletarian in origin, Lenin argued that they should be given every encouragement and assistance by Western revolutionists. This line of reasoning was further developed by Stalin in his work, *Marxism and the National Question*. Independence movements among the more backward peoples in the colonies and dependencies, maintained Stalin, would be of great help to the European proletarians. Such movements would sap the strength of the capitalist powers and thereby hasten their inevitable downfall. Furthermore, if the colonial areas were successful in achieving their independence, the consequent loss of markets and raw materials would further

weaken the imperialist powers. The European revolutionists, therefore, were urged to make every effort to foment and support demands for colonial independence.

As early as 1923 Stalin declared to the Twelfth Party Congress:⁸

"Two things are possible; either we succeed in stirring up and revolutionizing the far imperialist rear—the colonial and semi-colonial countries of the East—and thereby hasten the fall of capitalism, or we muffle it, and thereby strengthen imperialism and weaken the force of our movement. That is how the question stands."

The point of view expressed above was elaborated upon in the following statement by Stalin in 1924:⁹

"The question is as follows: are the revolutionary possibilities inherent in the revolutionary movement for emancipation of the oppressed countries *already exhausted*, or not; and if not, is there any hope, any basis for believing that these possibilities may be utilized for the proletarian revolution, that the dependent and colonial countries may be transformed from a reserve of the imperialist bourgeoisie into a reserve of the revolutionary proletariat, into an ally of the latter?"

During the Second World War when the U.S.S.R. needed the active assistance of Western capitalism, the published statements of Stalin made no direct reference to the previously accepted dogma of the inevitable conflict between the capitalist and Communist systems.

On the other hand, there was repeated reference to the possibility of "peaceful co-existence" between the two systems. This shift in doctrine was interpreted by some observers as a genuine metamorphosis in Communist ideology, a repudiation of former Leninist-Stalinist principles of long standing. A more careful reading of Lenin, however, would have revealed his insistence on the point that, though the basic ideology must remain unchanged, the tactics and strategy should be adapted to the exigencies of the current situation. "The strictest loyalty to the ideas of Communism," wrote Lenin in 1920, "must be combined with

the ability to make all the necessary practical compromises, to manoeuvre, to make agreements, zigzags, retreats, and so on."¹⁰

Soon after the end of the Second World War, the people of the U.S.S.R. were warned again that the impending conflict was an inescapable part of the historical process. In his famous speech of February 9, 1946, Stalin reaffirmed his conviction that war between capitalism and Communism could not be avoided. This idea was repeated in September 1947 in a widely publicized speech by Andre Zhdanov, a leading member of the Politbureau and one of the Soviet delegates to the conference which established the Cominform. Zhdanov reiterated the fundamental Communist doctrine of the inevitable conflict between the two worlds. The last citadel of capitalism, the United States of America, would precipitate the struggle, warned Zhdanov:¹¹

"The purpose of this new, frankly expansionist course is to establish the world supremacy of American imperialism . . . the new course of United States policy envisages a broad program of military, economic and political measures, designed to establish United States political and economic domination in all countries marked out for American expansion, to reduce these countries to the status of satellites of the United States, and to set up regimes within them which would eliminate all obstacles on the part of the labour and democratic movement to the exploitation of those countries by American capital. . . .

* * * * *

"But America's aspirations to world supremacy encounter an obstacle in the U.S.S.R., the stronghold of anti-imperialist and anti-fascist policy, and its growing international influence in the new democracies which have escaped from the control of Britain and American imperialism, and in the workers of all countries, including America itself, who do not want a new war for the supremacy of their oppressors. Accordingly, the new expansionist and reactionary policy of the United States envisages a struggle against the U.S.S.R., against the labour movement in all countries,

including the United States, and against the emancipationist, anti-imperialist forces in all countries.

"Alarmed by the achievements of Socialism in the U.S.S.R. . . . and by the post-war growth of the labour and democratic movement in all countries, the American reactionaries are disposed to take upon themselves the mission of 'saviours' of the capitalist system from Communism.

* * * * *

"The chief danger to the working class at this juncture lies in underrating its own strength and overrating the strength of the enemy. Just as in the past the Munich policy untied the hands of the Nazi aggressors, so today concessions to the new course of the United States and the imperialist camp may encourage its inspirers to be even more insolent and aggressive. The Communist Parties must therefore head the resistance to the plans of imperialist expansion and aggression along every line—state, economic and ideological; they must rally their ranks and unite their efforts on the basis of a common anti-imperialist and democratic platform, and gather around them all the democratic and patriotic forces of the people."

Thus the statements of Communist doctrine for over four decades, beginning with the writings of Lenin before 1914, have accepted the inevitability of a capitalist-Communist world war. Such a war is regarded as the final process whereby capitalism will proceed to its own downfall, in accordance with the im-

mutable laws of history. This proposition, expounded and repeated by Stalin through the years of his dictatorship, now appears as part of the fundamental Communist creed. Millions of Soviet citizens have been indoctrinated with the idea of this eventual war, and the great question in their minds is not whether it will come, but when and how it will be fought. The policies of the American government are assessed and evaluated from the perspective of this basic assumption of Communist doctrine, thus engendering suspicion and hostility rather than an attitude favorable to international cooperation.

¹ J. Stalin, *Leninism*, New York: International Publishers, 1928. Vol. I, *Foundations of Leninism*, pp. 94-95.

² "The Military Programme of the Proletarian Revolution." *Collected Works of V. I. Lenin*, 1916-1917. New York: International Publishers, 1942, Vol. XIX, pp. 363-364.

³ J. Stalin, *Leninism*. New York: International Publishers, 1928, Vol. I, p. 227.

⁴ *Ibid*, p. 71.

⁵ J. Stalin, *From the First to the Second Five Year Plan*, New York: International Publishers, 1933, pp. 24-26.

⁶ J. Stalin, *Leninism*. Vol. I, *Foundations of Leninism*. New York: International Publishers, 1928, Vol. I, p. 109.

⁷ J. Stalin, *Leninism*, Vol. I, *Foundations of Leninism*. New York: International Publishers, 1928, Vol. I, pp. 212-216.

⁸ J. Stalin, *Marxism and the National and Colonial Questions*. New York: International Publishers, 1935, pp. 147-148.

⁹ J. Stalin, *Marxism and the National and Colonial Questions*. New York: International Publishers, 1935, pp. 192-196.

¹⁰ V. I. Lenin, *Left-Wing Communism, An Infantile Disorder*. New York: International Publishers, 1940, p. 76.

¹¹ "The International Situation." Found in *The Strategy and Tactics of World Communism*. Report of Sub-Committee No. 5 to the House Committee on Foreign Affairs, 80th Cong., 2nd sess., House Document No. 619, 1948.

Pre-Service Education and In-Service Training — Parallels and Contrasts

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In order to draw parallels between the fields of pre-service education and in-service training and in order to delineate contrasts one must reexamine the terms education and training.

Education implies the building of a broad foundation for one's life. Training implies preparation to do a specific job or task.

Education and training frequently overlap.

In the liberal arts curriculum a course in American history is education for the person majoring in mathematics and training for the person who is preparing to teach American history.

Learning to read is an important segment of anyone's education. Yet, during the last five years the Department of Defense has found it practical to conduct intensive training courses in reading for both civilian employees and commissioned officers in order to improve their speed of reading.

Between the large areas of pre-service education and in-service training lies a large area of education which is acquired beyond full-time school and a large area of training which is acquired before entering full-time employment in the field in which it is used. These two middle ground areas of education and training sometimes merge to such an extent that no clearcut boundary separates them. Together they lie between the area of pre-service education on the one side and in-service training on the other, somewhat as the United States lies between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans.

In the field of pre-service education and in the field of in-service training a sense of the learner's needs and a sense of educational organization are necessary. Below are listed and described eight parallels between the two fields and eleven contrasts.

Parallels

1. *The laws of learning (readiness, satisfaction, and drill) apply in the field of pre-service education and in the field of in-service training.* All human beings learn in about the same way. They use one or more of the five senses (sight, hearing, touch, smell and taste) in learning. When their curiosity is aroused about a concept, process, fact, or series of facts learning will begin to take place, due to timeliness of the instruction or experience and *readiness* of the learners. If the new to which they are exposed provides *satisfaction*, and especially if it is related to something with which they are familiar the learning continues. If the exposure is repeated in any of a considerable number of ways (*drill*) the three-step learning process is carried to its full length. By means of this

process children in the elementary grades, high school and college students, and persons employed in a factory, department store, or an office learn most of what they know.

2. *In each of the two fields, even though the curriculum problems are different, a determination needs to be made as to what shall be learned.* Any type of instructing program should be planned before it is put into operation. The general objectives should be clearly in mind prior to the time when instruction begins. Curriculum development is a technical and tedious process in the field of pre-service education. In the training of employees the preparation of a schedule of units of instruction or courses requires a considerable amount of study of the purpose of the organization (United States Steel Corporation, United States Department of Agriculture, and the like), its immediate operations, and its employees.

To proceed with pre-service education or in-service training before determining what the student in the one case and the employee in the other should learn is like starting across the ocean in a ship without a rudder. The ship may make the trip successfully, or may land on an uninhabited island laden with food, treasure, and an airplane (with rudder) which is in operating condition, equipped with charts, and fuelled for a long trip. But much more likely the ship without a rudder will drift into rocks or be beaten to pieces by waves in an ocean storm. Pre-service education and in-service training carried on without first determining what shall be learned is just as ridiculous and no wiser than attempting to cross the ocean with a rudderless ship.

3. *In both fields instructional material must be selected or prepared.* The public school administrator and the college faculty member select text and reference books, wall maps, and laboratory materials to be used in conducting courses. Occasionally the school administrator will arrange for the preparation and publication of special materials, including workbooks. The college professor may develop in great detail a series of lectures and publish them ultimately in the form of a textbook which

he and others can use as the basic material in teaching a course.

The employee training director faces numerous problems which do not have an exact counterpart beyond the organization which he serves. If he finds that many errors are being made by the 20 employees who audit a certain type of voucher, used only by his organization, he may find it necessary to prepare or supervise the preparation of a manual concerning the type of auditing involved. In preparing instructional materials the training director finds it helpful to make an analysis of duties performed on the job about which instruction is to be given. The instructional material which is based on the job analysis may be accompanied by specially devised charts and machines or other apparatus useful in conducting the training.

4. *A determination needs to be made in the field of pre-service education and in the field of in-service training as to methods of instructing in connection with short units of learning or extensive courses offered.* In both fields a knowledge of instructing techniques is essential. Many instructing techniques used for generations in schools can be used to advantage in training employees. Conversely, quite a number of the "learn by doing" and "pooling experience" techniques used in various forms to develop employed persons can be adapted by school administrators for use in pre-service education.

5. *In both fields instruction should be clear, interesting, and businesslike.* Instructors who breathe life into their teaching whether dealing with an individual or a group, attract attention and respect. In order to breathe life into instruction it is necessary to be concrete rather than vague, to create an interest in and an enthusiasm for that which is being taught. The instruction must be accurate and to the point. It should be made available by persons who are very familiar with the subject to be taught, who know how to teach, and who desire to instruct and to improve their instructing ability. In addition the instruction should be impressive, not trivial. The feeling ought to be established that "this is worth learning."

Nothing is more deadening in either pre-

service education or in-service training than instruction which is foggy, dull, and mere routine. In either field the loss is great if instruction is poor.

6. *Individual counselling of a suitable type increases the learner's speed and thoroughness of learning, and his (or her) morale, whether being educated in school or trained by the organization in which employed.* Wise counselling on the part of a high school teacher can result in an about-face in the life of a boy or girl. Individual counselling may cause a student to finish high school and enter college rather than drop out of school at the end of the tenth grade. In commerce, industry, and government, individual counselling can and frequently does give an employee the lift he or she needs when having difficulty in assimilating training. Counselling can cause an employee to understand his or her job duties. Furthermore, expert, sincere counselling can build morale. Even in cases of bitterness it improves an employee's attitude toward his immediate boss and toward the entire organization of which he is a part.

7. *A school administrator and an employee training director must each provide some means of testing so as to determine how correctly and how completely the individual has learned.* "How well did John do in his high school algebra?" "How well did Mr. Brown learn to issue verbal orders to his workers?" These are questions of the type which must be answered. The answers should be as objective as possible.

Factual tests based on reading assignments, tests of manipulative dexterity, reflex time, attitudes, practical judgment, and the like are useful to the school administrator and to the employee training director. Each needs a system of testing which fits the type of program which he is conducting. Any testing system in either the pre-service education field or in the in-service training field should be sufficiently flexible to permit substitution of one test for another when more suitable tests are devised or when change of instruction program requires change of test emphasis.

8. *In both fields there should be a continuous attempt to evaluate the effectiveness of the over-all program.* In the field of pre-service

education the school administrator should ask himself "How well is our high school helping youth in this community to meet their problems, regardless of whether they enter college?" The answer will require an inquiry into the problems being faced by graduates of the particular high school and by boys and girls who drop out of that school. Also, it will be necessary to compare those problems with the curriculum of that high school, review teaching methods used by the faculty of the school, and analyze the quality of instruction of each faculty member. In addition, the attitude of the adults in the community toward the high school will deserve consideration.

The employee training director, too, should constantly attempt to evaluate the effectiveness of the over-all program. The question "To what extent has our training program produced a smooth running organization?" will in turn raise others such as "Do workers know what they are supposed to do?" "Do they perform their jobs efficiently?" "Is there a meeting of minds among supervisory personnel to the effect that the training program now in operation is suitable?" "Do the people who are being trained accept the program as something necessary and something that is beneficial to themselves and to the organization in which they are employed?"

The value of either education or training almost defies measurement. Yet, by maintaining records concerning the amount and type of success of high school students over a period of years and the productivity of employees in terms of number and type of units of work turned out, and annual per capita cost in both fields, one will obtain a start in evaluating a program. After beginning the evaluation process in a systematic way various yardsticks will suggest themselves to the enterprising investigator, even though no one has yet found a very reliable formula for judging the effectiveness of pre-service education or in-service training. By asking pertinent questions about their respective programs and by looking diligently and intelligently for the answers the school administrator and the employee training director will find some of the weaknesses and how to correct them. Such process of inquiry,

accompanied by follow-up, is necessary in evaluating any system of instruction.

Contrasts

1. *Pre-service education is conducted mainly for children, youth, and young adults who have not yet left full-time school. In-service training is conducted for adults who have taken on the responsibility of handling a pay roll job.* As of today, October 25, 1951, the United States Office of Education estimates the enrollment in public elementary schools in the United States to be 21,318,000, in public high schools in the United States to be 5,456,000, and in our public and private colleges and universities, including technical schools of college grade and teachers colleges, to be 2,225,000. These 28,999,000 boys, girls, men, and women are receiving pre-service education. Some of them are also receiving *pre-service training*, as for instance the senior in an agricultural college who is taking an advanced course in horticulture and who has already secured employment for next year as a horticulturist.

There are approximately 60,000,000 employed persons in the United States at the present time. On the basis of various tabulations made by the Bureau of the Census, United States Department of Commerce, and by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor, it seems that perhaps 15,000,000 persons are employed by organizations having 1,000 or more workers. Most of these 15,000,000 people can benefit from well-organized employee training programs. An organization having 1,000 or more employees can well afford on a dollar and cents basis to conduct in-service training. Many large corporations and numerous Federal, State, and local governmental units are providing their employees with systematic training.

2. *Pre-service education is as old as Plato and the proverbial hills; organized in-service training for many types of workers is relatively new.* For centuries, at least from the latter part of the Middle Ages, pre-service education has been formulated clearly. During all of the last century, 1851-1951, it has been highly organized in Europe and in the United States, especially during the last 50 years.

With in-service training the situation has

been much different. Except for apprenticeships in various trades, in-service training scarcely existed in organized form in the United States until World War I. It may have been as little developed in other countries as here until 1916. In 1917 and 1918 in-service training was injected into the American scene in order to speed war production. In-service training in the United States has had an intermittent although rather steady development since then.

3. *Pre-service education is conducted mainly in schools; in-service training mainly in the working space of the organization which is providing the training.* Good and bad classroom, laboratory, and library facilities of public and private elementary and high schools, and of public and private liberal arts colleges and universities annually are used as the place for conducting pre-service education for approximately one-fifth of the population of the United States. Such organizations as the Pennsylvania Railroad or the United States Department of the Interior conduct training in offices, in conference rooms, on railroad cars adapted to instruction purposes, in repair shops and at the site of construction projects. By so doing the training is carried to the workers who need it and is conducted within easy access of the tools, charts, blueprints, and other relevant working materials which can be used when instructing.

4. *Pre-service education is provided by schools serving a wide clientele; in-service training is provided by an organization for its own employees.* Pre-service education is largely tax-supported. Industrial and commercial concerns naturally are interested in training their own employees rather than the employees of their competitors. A government department or agency receives a specific appropriation and is expected to render a specific service. The appropriation seldom is large enough to permit extensive training for all its employees and could not be spent for training persons in private employment. Consequently, on any city block one can find men who each may secure in-service training from but one organization, until changing employment, but whose children may elect to go to any of a half dozen or more schools to secure pre-service education.

5. *Pre-service education is regulated to a*

large extent by State laws and by rules made by State departments of education; in-service training is regulated by little other than the policy established by the business or governmental organization conducting the training. The rules promulgated by State departments of education, and by local school boards across the country, are extremely numerous. Many minute details of administration and instruction are covered by these rules. Colleges and universities too are regulated by a mass of public, or by self formulated, regulations.

In-service training in the federal government, in sharp contrast, is scarcely regulated by Congressional Acts and only to a small extent by Executive Orders of the President and by Budget Bureau and Comptroller General decisions. In-service training in federal departments and independent agencies is regulated rather largely by policies approved by the head of the organization. The situation is probably comparable in most State and local jurisdictions. Private corporations, of course, are largely free to train or not train as they see fit.

6. *Availability of learners presents a comparatively small problem in pre-service education but a large problem for in-service training.* The public school administrator and the college president have little difficulty in filling their classrooms and laboratories with students. Compulsory school laws and child labor laws assure that most boys and girls in the United States between the ages of six and 16 will attend school on a full-time basis. Society favors placing children in school. If children would not attend school most of them would be a problem to their parents and to the community in which they live. Twentieth century urbanization and technology permit no alternative for compulsory education.

Youth who continue in high school beyond compulsory school age do so because they want to or because their parents require them to attend. Most of those who go to college desire to make the time sacrifice which is involved in securing a college education.

The matter of in-service training is far different. The training director frequently is compelled to ask for and justify the time spent in developing employees. The training is done

at the expense of either the employer or the employee, or both. Worker's salaries or wages, production deadlines, demands of labor unions, and the worker's family and social responsibilities after his or her hours of employment all enter the picture. The training director is faced with meshing a self-improvement program into the learner's full-time work assignment, whereas the school administrator has the learner on an outright full-time basis.

7. *Incentives for pre-service education are linked with grades, diplomas, and entrance requirements of various fields of work; incentives for in-service training are linked with holding a job, meeting daily job problems, and advancing on the job.* In elementary school incentives are somewhat remote. A child who dislikes arithmetic may be told that he ought to do his best in mastering the subject as it will be useful to him later. Such an approach, depending on how convincingly it is made, will or will not be an incentive to the boy. The desire to attain high grades and attract attention by them is an incentive to many students during the days of their pre-service education. The desire to be accepted by a particular college is a powerful incentive to some high school students and results in diligent study.

In-service training generally depends on rather immediate incentives. It approaches the worker at an adult level, recognizing him as a mature and responsible person. The employee who is having difficulty in measuring up on the job is told that a short unit of instruction is being made available to him in order that he can equip himself to meet the demands of the job. Employees who are being transferred from one type of duties to another are given a few hours or a few days of detailed instruction and supervised practice which is designed to assist them in handling the new duties with ease. Selected employees who show special abilities useful to the organization which employs them are trained for assignments of increased responsibility in the organization. In each of these instances an immediate or near immediate incentive is used. Immediate incentives appeal to all types of workers, especially to those below the executive and supervisory levels.

8. *Pre-service education stresses long-range*

preparation to meet life's problems; in-service training directs attention to a pay roll problem, and frequently to an immediate one. Through the teaching of science, high schools and colleges attempt to familiarize the student with scientific method so that he (or she) can use the scientific method or at least recognize and appreciate it regardless of what field of work he enters. Among typical problems to which in-service training is directed are the following—how to check travel vouchers for completeness and accuracy, how to operate a somewhat complex machine which is being installed for daily use, and how to do a better job of supervising workers.

9. *Curriculum changes are much more frequent in the field of in-service training than in the field of pre-service education.* During peace or war, prosperity or depression the offerings of schools engaged in furnishing pre-service education change less from year to year than do the instructional activities of many business organizations or governmental units. A corporation which manufactured radios in 1941 probably was training its employees in 1946 to assemble television sets, whereas the elementary school in the community was teaching the same fundamentals in 1946 as in 1941. To put the matter of curriculum change in sharp contrast, extreme examples can be cited. The liberal arts curriculum changed considerably between 1400 and 1875 and much between 1875 and 1951, but comparatively little during any ten year period during the last 500 years. The high school curriculum in almost any one American town or city is not greatly different than it was five years ago in that community. There is much resistance to change in the curriculum of public elementary and high schools as well as in that of colleges and universities.

The component parts of an in-service training program for one department or independent agency of the federal government may change very noticeably in the space of two years, or even within six months. Changes in the overall responsibilities of the department or agency, changes in the labor market, and expansion or contraction of the organization all have a tremendous and sometimes a rather sudden impact on the in-service training offerings.

The same situation obtains in private corporations operating in a competitive or in a franchise area.

Due to the solid and stable nature of pre-service education and to the rapid fluctuations in the functions and fortunes of a governmental unit or private corporation, pre-service education curriculums change slowly as compared with in-service training opportunities for employed persons. As new and better ways of performing a job evolve they become the basis for changes of the in-service training curriculum, and very quickly if prompted by grim financial necessity.

Even though the curriculum shifts slowly in the field of pre-service education it does change and requires much careful study of the needs of the individual and of the community or nation in which he or she lives. In-service training curriculums may shift very quickly due to changes in operating conditions within an organization having a large number of employees but the changes should be based on detailed study of employee and employer needs.

10. *To a large extent pre-service education uses a method of teaching based on the lecture, reading assignments, and classroom discussion of reading assignments. In-service training emphasizes the use of individual on-the-job instruction, and the conference method of instructing and learning.* The lecture is much more adaptable than most of its opponents like to admit. It can be supplemented by visual aids and by carefully planned demonstrations. It can be shortened to a few minutes of precise, intriguing and useful instruction. Selected reading assignments and classroom discussion of those assignments, too, result in productive learning. Full-time school is well adapted to a method of teaching based on the lecture, reading assignments, and classroom discussion of reading assignments since students are in the habit of learning by means of somewhat abstract study and can give first priority to such study.

In-service training usually has more immediate objectives than does pre-service education. Among employed persons individual on-the-job instruction is resorted to quite often due to the

necessity to train a person for one job immediately. If 50 persons are hired in one month to work in a factory and are each assigned to a different job it is obvious that instruction of all 50 as a group at best would scarcely prepare each to handle his new job. Many of the 50 may have been away from school and habits of study for a number of years. At least some of the 50 may read poorly and have so little abstract-mindedness that they could not assimilate a short lecture. Even so there is a very definite place in employee training for the lecture, reading assignments such as case studies, and discussion of reading assignments.

The conference method of instructing and learning is appropriate for employees who have been on duty in an organization for several years and who have acquired experience useful to the organization. Through the conference there is a pooling of experience and directed thinking about daily or long range problems of supervising workers, maintaining equipment, economizing supplies, and the like. The conference method is particularly appropriate for in-service training as it recognizes the employee as being a mature individual possessing valuable experience and judgment.

11. *There is greater necessity to justify the cost of in-service training than to justify the cost of pre-service education.* Pre-service education has been accepted as a part of modern civilization. It is looked upon as something which is necessary in society. In-service training is regarded rather more as a matter to be left to the discretion of the employer, although there is a considerable amount of public sentiment favoring the in-service training of governmental employees.

Money costs must be justified to a much greater extent in the field of in-service training than in the field of pre-service education. It is constantly necessary to show operating officials, boards of directors, and appropriation committees why in-service training is necessary and what it is accomplishing. Especially is this true in times when budgets are being reduced. Pre-service education, on the other hand, must justify enlarged expenditures and new programs but no longer needs to justify its very existence.

The Public Welfare Department: A Community Resource in Social Education

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Governmental departments in such large cities as New York often present formidable difficulties in their utilization as community resources for educational purposes. There are the staggering factors of size—the large number of offices—many buildings—the seemingly complicated administrative set-up—the tremendous staff, etc. The instructor as well as the student, often wonders where to start. This difficulty is often compounded when the approach is one of a “tour.” Such an approach without proper preparation of the student many times becomes purposeless, diffuse and confusing. A specific problem approach which can unify and integrate this experience is often a luxury permitted mainly to students who specialize in that phase of governmental activity.

One of the objectives of the General Education Department of the State University of New York Institute of Applied Arts and Sciences at New York City is to provide the students with a practical awareness of social reality in their community. This Department concerned with the social sciences decided to embark upon an experiment. Some Freshmen Sociology classes, made up of recent high school graduates, were to be involved in a plan whereby they would gain first hand knowledge of the Public Welfare Department through the use of a practical problem. The students selected were chosen without concern as to their technical specialization. This was to be an experience that possibly might be shared by all students as a phase of their general education.

The experiment started with the instructor formulating an assignment involving a budget problem for a mythical family applying for

relief. This assignment read as follows:

Learn the amount which the Department of Public Welfare would allow as a budget for the family described below. You may seek assistance from the Department of Public Welfare. Indicate in your report—the sources of financial aid available to the family—what if any further information is needed in order to make out a budget for the family—the functions of the social Welfare investigator—make an evaluation of the Department of Welfare program.

John Smith, aged 36, newsstand owner. Income averaged \$60 a week. Forced to sell his stand for \$1000 because of a cardiac condition. Unable to climb stairs. Needs medical care of a heart specialist.

Mary Smith, wife, aged 34. Earns \$5 a week as baby sitter.

Joseph Smith, son, aged 10. Elementary school student.

Margaret Smith, daughter, aged 3.

Harry Smith, son, aged 16. High School student earns \$15 a week as a grocery store delivery boy in the neighborhood. Needs 20 cents a day carfare to go to school.

The family possesses a television set, a \$1500 paid up life insurance policy. All bank savings have been depleted. They have been on relief before and have no relatives in the city.

The student was armed with a letter of introduction and forewarned of the possible difficulties in getting information. This was not a ready-made research project that could be handled by leafing through several articles or books in a library. The student had to use initiative and resourcefulness in securing the

information which he needed to make an intelligent and satisfactory report on the assignment given him. He would need to open doors of locations unfamiliar to him, meet people he did not know, and to explain the purpose of the visit in a clear manner. Finding the information which he needed would probably involve referral after referral, before he could secure the information necessary to write his report.

Although the Public Welfare Department was accustomed to receiving visitors, either individuals or groups, and had students from various universities and schools of social work in their various offices as students doing their field work, nevertheless to have a college Freshman Sociology student knocking at the door of a local Welfare office armed with an assignment involving knowledge of the Public Welfare Program and an actual budget problem—to be worked out on an educational basis for a definite solution—was indeed an unusual experience. The local Welfare office where the young man first appeared called the Commissioner's office regarding the request made by the student. This request would take several hours time of a worker in an already too busy office—clients' needs should not wait while a student became educated. Because it is the policy of the New York City Welfare Department to extend every courtesy to those interested in the work of the Department and because the Commissioner of Welfare is particularly interested in having the youth of the city understand the vast Social Welfare program of this country, the Welfare Center was instructed to send the student to the Commissioner's office. This was done. The Public Relations Administrator in the Commissioner's office was asked to work with the interested young man who sought the knowledge necessary to make a report on the assignment given him. It would have been most helpful if the college involved in the experience had called the Welfare Department prior to sending the student out. The Administrator was deeply gratified to know that a sociology instructor was interested enough to work out and make such an assignment. It was clear from reading the assignment that the instructor had more or less knowledge of the work of the Department of Public Welfare.

Because it is most necessary for anyone who is interested in discussing a specific budgetary problem with the Public Department to have some knowledge of the laws and policies under which such a department functions, the Administrator herself arranged to discuss these with the student while one of the Assistant Supervisors under her direction took the budget problem and worked it out on the basis of the family's being eligible for financial aid. Thus the actual amounts allowed were worked out. After the discussion with the Administrator, who not only pointed out policies and laws under which the Department worked but who had endeavored in a short time (1½ hours) to give the student a picture of the Federal, State and local administrative organization and relationships pertaining to the granting of public assistance—the student was turned over to the assistant supervisor who discussed with him the specific problem which had been presented to him—pointing out the further information needed before eligibility of client could be established. Having done this, and assuming that the client was eligible for help, they proceeded to work out the budget based on the allowances in accordance with the Federal, State and local Public Welfare Laws and policies.

The Administrator spoke with the student again before he left the office. He expressed his thanks for the information which he had secured indicating that he was amazed at the gigantic operation being performed by the Public Welfare Department. He stated that he had learned much and thought that he would be able to make an interesting report. He let it be known that he had been a bit anxious about the assignment when he received it, but he now found himself very much interested in the work of the Department.

From this single student an entire development has taken place. The next semester found an entire class interested and involved in a field trip to the Department of Welfare. Prior planning and further refinement of the problem made it feasible for the larger group to go through this educationally profitable experience. (The experience of the class consisted of a lecture-discussion of a specific problem and a tour of a local Welfare Center.) The

next step was the choosing of representative committees from several classes who visited the Department of Welfare where they were acquainted with the Public Welfare Program through a combination of the lecture and tour methods.

Thus it will be seen that through the cooperation of the instructors of the University and the Public Relations Administrator of the Department of Welfare a plan evolved whereby large numbers of students may learn about a most important community resource with a minimum amount of time and effort on the part of all concerned.

Both lecture and tour plans briefly outlined are as follows:

Lecture: Brief talk *re*: growing recognition of the over-all social needs in the areas of Health and Welfare on the part of the citizens.

A. Federal, State and local Public Welfare

Administrative set-ups

Supervisory relationship

Sources of funds

Public Assistance Program

Varieties of assistance given

Children's Program

Statistics—current—(mostly local)

B. Staff

Qualifications

Civil Service—etc.

C. Specific Public Assistance budgetary

problem (Problem sent to Welfare Department prior to visit)

Budget computation

Manner in which amounts granted are computed (Home Economist may or may not participate in this part of lecture)

Tour: Central Welfare Department office

Executive offices

Technical Machinery—IBM operation

(getting out semi-monthly assistance checks—one of the largest in the country)

Field Visit to a Welfare Center

Follow case through Intake to Field Worker

Discussion of special services: Resource—

Medical — Homemaking — Home Economist — Housing — Occupation, etc.

Question and answer period.

If time permits visit:

Homemaking Center

Welfare Training Institute

Reviewing the experience in using the Public Welfare Department as a community resource in Social Education, we find the following to be true:

The results of the trips to the Department of Welfare add up to shared experience of deep educational significance. The students developed an appreciation of the difficulties of social economic problems. They realized that social statistics which often appear cold and uninteresting when broken down into individual situations may mean the well-being of a family of human beings. Misconceptions were cleared away. The limitations imposed by law under which the Department of Welfare operates gave them an understanding of responsibility. Finally a huge governmental department came into clear focus as an organization functioning to meet the needs of the people.

If the above results are to be gained through the co-operation of an educational institution and a Department of Welfare the following factors necessarily come into play:

On the part of the college or university there must be real interest and understanding of the subject by the instructor. There should be good judgment used in the choice of representative students selected to make the visit.

On the part of the Public Welfare Department there must needs be a realization of the importance of the education of our youth about the Public Welfare program and some plan worked out so that the information is given on an educational basis and in a manner which will inspire an interest and desire on the part of the students not only to give a report to their class but to continue their interest from a community standpoint.

Assuming that the above is true, the plan to use the Public Welfare Department as a community resource in social studies should prove helpful in assisting with the education of our youth in the preparation for useful citizenship in their communities.

Evaluative Practices in United States History Classes*

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Most social studies teachers admit that the measurement of pupil progress is the weakest link in their programs. Today, as other aims crowd "knowledge of content" for top importance in statements of course purposes, teachers are becoming ever more concerned about what they are evaluating and the best way of judging student progress in the areas of attitudes, critical thinking, and character and personality development. Many, hampered by rather inelastic means of marking and reporting grades and by archaic rules for pupil promotion and accreditation, admit that they are doing little in their evaluation programs besides checking pupil mastery of textbook content. Numerous teachers also feel that few existing published tests, which are often not easily available nor practical to administer, score, or interpret, adequately or accurately measure pupil grasp of these more intangible social studies objectives, the importance of which has become so evident in recent years.

The teachers of United States history reporting in this study indicated a sympathy towards the present trend of avoiding criticism of attempts to reach standards and make judgments in the more intangible areas by separating "measurement" from "evaluation." In this case the term measurement is used in connec-

tion with strictly objective checks upon progress, while the field of evaluation is widened to include many types of subjective appraisal. Evaluation as such includes checking on much more than the pupil; evaluation of the curriculum, of instruction, and of evaluation itself is now accepted theory. This evaluation tends to be cooperative, including even judgments by pupils and parents. It calls for self-appraisal by students; it is used more and more as a teaching device as well as for diagnostic purposes. At the same time demands for specificity in evaluation in terms of a given individual in a particular situation cause teachers to frown upon evaluation in relation to group accomplishment and tend to make any standardization of attitudes, values, and even skills difficult, if not impossible, to achieve.

In spite of the newer types of evaluation instruments which are becoming more readily available, teachers hold to the traditional means of assessing the pupil. Although some criticize the objective type tests, the resistance to them has melted almost completely. The familiarity that American history teachers of the most recent generation have developed through experiences in their own high school and college courses, plus the speed and ease with which such tests can be marked in these days of overcrowded classrooms and heavy schedules, has brought nearly unanimous, if in some situations reluctant, use of the objective-type test.

On the other hand a number of these American history teachers indicated that along with objective items they use short essay-type questions. Thus they follow a middle path between the arguments over the respective values of the objective test and the essay test which have

* During the past school year the author concluded a study of the teaching of United States history in a representative sampling of 100 California high schools. This article is one of a series of reports on various aspects of the findings which have appeared as articles in various educational journals.

A partial but general summary of the entire study appeared in the *California Journal of Secondary Education*, May, 1951; trends in teaching current events were reported in *The Civic Leader*, April 16, 1951; textbook practices were revealed in *The Phi Delta Kappan*, January, 1952; and a review of teaching methods as well as general conclusions of the study were printed in *Social Education*, April, 1952.

been productive of many statements of opinion but of few facts. There is undoubtedly a correct place for both of these types of examination questions, depending upon just what the teacher wishes to examine. While thoughtful teachers attempt to limit subjectivity and make their grading of essay questions more reliable, they are also making their objective items more valid. They are attaining this latter end, for example, through the continued refinement of test items over a period of years, through the use of more and improved types of objective items, such as the multiple choice question, and by having pupils briefly correct or explain the error in the questions they mark false in the "true and false" type of examinations.

Teachers in this study were asked which of ten types of evaluative techniques they used in determining pupil grades—that which was used most often, as well as those used occasionally or supplementarily. The following table presents their answers, with the percentage using the technique as a major means of evaluation in the first column, as an occasional measuring technique in the second, and the total percentage using the method in the third column:

EVALUATIVE TECHNIQUES USED BY
TEACHERS IN AMERICAN HISTORY

Evaluating Technique	Percentage Using as a Major Technique	Percentage Using as an Occasional Technique	Total Percentage Using Technique
Objective Tests, teacher-made	53	40	93
Class Discussion	51	42	93
Oral Reports	18	63	81
Essay Tests	24	52	76
Student Papers or or Notebooks	33	41	74
Group or Individual Projects	11	56	67
Citizenship and Behavior Displayed in School	14	46	60
Oral Quizzes	10	42	52
Objective Tests, standardized	8	35	43
Citizenship Observed in Community	5	22	27
Other	—	—	10

Only 22 per cent of the teachers responding reported a single major technique of evaluation. Three or four major means were checked by the great majority, while a total of six or

seven were most commonly checked in the combined categories, major and occasional. This reveals a realization on the part of California's senior high school United States history teachers that no single type of testing can adequately measure pupil achievement. These teachers, accordingly, show a balanced opinion and a sensible approach in varying and combining their evaluative techniques.

Objective tests and class discussions proved by far the most common evaluative techniques, for over 50 per cent of the teachers used them as a major technique and over 90 per cent used them at one time or another. Student papers, notebooks, and essay tests ranked next. Even though 81 per cent use oral reports, it should be noted that they are a major source of grades in only 18 per cent of the classes. Two other techniques of special value in the subjective measurement of some of the more intangible outcomes of social studies skills and competencies, which teachers deem to be of increasing importance, are group or individual projects and citizenship in the school or classroom. While over 50 per cent of the teachers use both of these techniques, it should be noted that they are only major measures in less than 15 per cent of the schools. In the latter case this is perhaps to be expected, but if these teachers wish to prove the pupils' social studies skills—for example, in research or in their facility in the use of democratic group processes—many more should be using group work and the results of individual problem solving as major techniques in evaluation.

Teachers were asked to list other types of evaluation not suggested, and under 10 per cent did so. They mentioned techniques such as "use of tests in text," "current events tests in papers," and "text outlines and chapter questions." None mentioned measures of critical thinking, special skill tests, attitudinal checks, self-evaluative techniques, inventories, rating scales, case studies, cumulative records, socio-metric techniques, or observational check lists—to cite means of evaluation which would help them find some of the results of their teaching in which they claim to be interested. The lack of statements concerning the types of evaluation which would reveal pupil growth

in areas admittedly difficult to discover shows the prime influence of subject matter and the hesitancy on the part of teachers to use the kinds of evaluation which will really help prove the value of the social studies program.

Instruction in the social studies is mainly valuable to the extent that it develops desirable changes in the students. Although often these cannot be determined until after graduation, teachers should try to develop and use evaluative techniques which reveal the current progress of the pupils. In observing classroom practices, too many of the vital objectives seem to be looked upon by the teachers as being gained concomitantly or in a derivative manner. Just as these must be planned for and attained through carefully organized activities, so must the evaluation of pupil grasp of these objectives be planned and incorporated into the regular testing program. Actually only as such means of appraisal are evolved can instruction be judged accurately and really improve. Therefore, it can be seen that evaluation elements heretofore missing in our total social studies program are essential keys not only for really understanding the effect of our teaching upon the students, but also for developing truly adequate social studies courses.

"Recent studies have indicated that the more permanent values of learning are the social attitudes which students develop—the ability with which they handle books, library facilities, and laboratory equipment, the skill with which they interpret data, analyse arguments, draw generalizations, and master the techniques and tools of communication. A primary purpose of the social studies is to develop socially sensitive and socially effective citizens. If this is true, then certainly these objectives merit as careful appraisal as teachers have given in the past to the measurement of factual information. The reporting of grades then should be made in relation to all the important objectives of social studies instruction."¹

Teachers must remember that facts do not miraculously transfer to the ideals so many claim they seek. Only two per cent of the teachers responding criticized the ten evaluative techniques suggested as not being parallel

to or revealing of the achievement of some of the important goals they sought in their teaching of American history. It is necessary for teachers to reach agreement on specifically valuable knowledge, skills, and attitudes, and then to work for mastery and transfer to life's situations, with evaluation occurring regularly, even in the years that follow formal schooling. One teacher stated, "There is something wrong when a boy who demolishes school and community property gets A's and B's in United States history and civics courses." With such situations only too common, many teachers must ask themselves frequently, as they view this poor carry-over, "How well does my testing program really check on the skills, ideals, and potentialities of citizenship?" Unfortunately in too many cases the answer is too drastic to face.

Only 27 per cent of the teachers claimed to be taking one of the steps toward realistic evaluation by observing and crediting pupil citizenship in the locality. Of course, many others besides the history teachers must alter their concept of education before full, effective, long-term, community-wide evaluation becomes a part of the accepted school program. Four per cent of the American history teachers pointed out, for example, that the high school administration actually prevented such broad types of evaluation. One teacher sadly stated, "The Admissions Office gives a number of these other type tests which we might use in measuring and reporting pupil development. But we don't even hear or see the results which are locked in big green files in the office." Investigation in this school revealed a short-sighted and fainthearted policy existing because the administration feared to turn certain intimate test results over to the teachers.

As the United States history program now stands in California senior high schools, there seems to be close agreement upon general purposes; there is too little agreement by all concerned — historians, educational experts, textbook writers, and teachers—on the specifics of content and emphasis, as well as upon the methods and the means. Then where agreement seems to have been attained about basic content selection, emphasis, and organization, too often

the classroom teacher's failure to cooperate or to experiment in moving from traditional paths makes progress very slow. And even where all this has been accomplished, a comprehen-

sive, valid, and reliable evaluation program, incorporated into specific courses as well as a part of the total curriculum, seems as yet in the far distant future.

The Case for General Education in the Social Sciences in the Preparation of the Elementary Teacher

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All the present-day concern with the idea of general education must seem something rather old to the elementary teacher, for he has been involved in it all of his days. He is a teacher in the spirit of general education in its broadest conceivable sense; the subject-matter he teaches cuts across not only the artificial boundary lines which separate related disciplines, but across the whole range of human understanding. For him, too, in his subject-matter and in his teaching, there is that underlying spirit of humanitarian concern for the personalities of students that reveals itself, or ought to, in general education programs of whatever level, kindergarten to graduate school.

If by general education we mean those programs of study which disregard the boundaries of different disciplines in the search for knowledge and attitudes useful in the solving of problems growing out of social living in an incompletely known world, and if such programs at their ideal best involve respect for individual students as personalities, then the elementary teacher is a "general educationist." And, what is more, his training ought to include study in curricula designed to provide general education experience.

For the social scientist, the process of formal education is only one aspect (and perhaps even a minor one) in a yet larger process he calls "socialization." Socialization is that great and complex process by which members of a society

attempt to form their young into the types of personalities who can function with other personalities similarly molded. The human infant is a biological organism which becomes a personality recognizable as "human" only after he has learned from others. The opportunities for this learning are provided by many agencies, the most noteworthy of which are, undoubtedly, the family, the play group, the church, and the school. There are many others: the radio and television, the motion picture, clubs and social organizations, the activity of reading, and all sorts of other individual and group contacts, to mention only a few. The school then, is only one among such agencies of socialization, and, even though it may be a significant one, it is ultimately understandable only in its relationships to all the rest.

Now, it may be asked, what does all this have to do with the elementary school teacher or his preparation, and, indeed, what does it have to do with general education? The answer may be somewhat complex, but it is valid, nevertheless.

First, the nature of general education in the social sciences needs to be understood. Its subject matter is broad—as broad as all the social sciences combined, and perhaps broader than the sum of the separate disciplines because of the combination. At the University of Colorado, where a general education program has been in effect for some years, students draw

from the physical anthropologist in the study of the development of man as a physical being, from the sociologist in the study of social relationships and behavior patterns, and from the political scientist and economist in the study of political and economic institutions and behaviors. The emphasis is on broad themes and principles, rather than on detailed factual items (although there is an abundance of them, too, as any student will volunteer) and on contemporary usefulness. All these things, it is hoped, are given meaning, perspective, and a spirit of reality through the illustrations of history, which serves as a kind of cement, binding the course materials into a unit. Further, there is a genuine (although not always entirely successful) attempt to keep classes small in order that individual attention to the student's personality development may be provided. It is suggested that it is such programs as this one which can best provide the broad outlook which is necessary if the elementary teacher is properly to evaluate the school and his efforts in it in terms of its larger social context.

Secondly, there are some facts about elementary teachers and their preparation which are in point here. If repetition will be borne with, it should be reiterated that the elementary teacher is himself a general education teacher, and, therefore, his training ought to involve some experience in such programs on a high academic level. As far as training is concerned, elementary teachers typically find time for only a few courses in the social sciences, and thereby, unless those courses are of a truly general nature, they are inevitably forced to ignore whole blocks or fields of social science accomplishment. Finally, the elementary teacher has as much need for fundamental knowledge in all the fields he deals with as does his specialized colleague in the graduate school. The fundamentals, the key principles, of a field of knowledge are the same whether they are being taught to third graders or Ph.D. candidates; they are only phrased differently and pitched on different levels. Perhaps the notable illustration of the teaching of American history

will make the point clearer. In our elementary schools, American history has sometimes been taught on a flag-waving, band-playing, superficial level, concocted half out of fact and half out of fancy. And yet, is it not just as possible—at their level—to give elementary students a feeling of the important elements of history, the continuity, the living excitement which can come from a study of people and their thought and behavior patterns, as it is to get it across to college students? Because the elementary teacher must spread himself over almost the entire range of human knowledge, it is impossible that he can become a highly competent expert in all the areas he teaches. The next best thing is for him to be at least acquainted with the "big ideas" in all the fields. In the social sciences, general education courses are probably the most expedient way of achieving this end.

In summary, then, what can the study of general education courses in the social sciences offer the elementary teacher? The present writer suggests the following:

1. Such study can provide experience in general education for people who are to be professionally involved in it.
2. It can serve, in the crowded schedule of students, to provide a broad introduction to the "big ideas" of all the fields of the social sciences, eliminating the possibility of complete ignorance of any important field.
3. It can help the teacher in the development of an understanding of the relationship of the school to the other agencies of socialization.
4. It can bring to the teacher some general understanding of the contributions of each of the fields of the social sciences to the theory and methods of education.
5. It can throw some light on the importance of non-school experiences in the personality development of the individual pupil.
6. It can aid the teacher in the acquisition of a deeper knowledge of the values of his society, and, thence, in the formulation of an educational philosophy in line with the social values he finds acceptable.

The Teachers' Page

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A DEMONSTRATION LESSON ON HOW TO STUDY

The usual literature on how to study deals with such skills as how to make an outline, how to read a book, and how to take notes. There is a preliminary step on how to study that should precede, in most class situations, the consideration of the specific skills mentioned above. This preliminary phase, which can be covered in one or two lessons, should provide the student with an understanding of the psychological basis for study and learning.

The presentation which follows is a suggested approach to this preliminary phase on how to study. Certain of the comments may seem obvious and elementary. They are included in order to make the "demonstration lesson" complete.

Part I—Understanding Study and Learning

A. Developing a definition of "Study"

1. The teacher might begin by announcing to the class that he wants to devote one or two periods to the subject: How to Study.
2. He may begin by asking students for a definition of "study."
3. If the response is slow, he may follow with such questions as:
 "What does study mean to you?"
 "What do you do when you study?"
 "What does a teacher expect you to do when he tells you to study?"
4. The students may or may not come forth with appropriate answers. In general, students will respond in a variety of ways. The following are typical replies given by students to "What is study?":
 "When you concentrate on something."
 "When you read something."
 "Think about."
 "Memorize, reading, thinking."
 "You don't necessarily have to read as when you study a picture."
 "Trying to learn something."

Some student comments and questions

may be half-humorous and half-tragic, as the following made by two students:

"It means the work you are trying to do for the term at least to pass."

"What happens if you study and still flunk?"

5. The important factor in having the students try to define "study" is that it gives them the opportunity to think about the whole problem. Whatever their replies, the teacher should summarize the discussion and present an acceptable definition. For this purpose it might be:

"Study is basically a *method of learning*."

6. Students do not always grasp the full meaning of a statement when they first hear it. It may be wise, therefore, to repeat the definition, or to express it in some other way, as:

"Study is the *way by which you learn*."

B. Developing a definition of "learning"

1. The class itself may raise the question: "What is learning?" Whether or not that happens the teacher may logically follow with a discussion on learning. If the response is slow, the following questions may be used:
 "What does learning mean to you?"
 "What does a teacher mean when he asks whether you 'learned' your lesson?"
 "What happens to you when you learn?"
2. The students may or may not give appropriate answers. Again, the following replies are typical:
 "Accumulating information for future use."
 "Result of studying."
 "Knowing how to find or get information."
 "Find out something new."
 "When you broaden your mind."
3. When student response has been exhausted, or if the teacher desires to speed up the process when replies become repe-

titious, he should summarize and suggest an acceptable definition of learning. This may be:

"Learning is a process of change taking place in the individual as a result of some activity."

4. This concept is not easy for all students to grasp immediately. Young people tend to be realistic as well as imaginative. If learning means change, some children may actually expect to witness something visible taking place. It is necessary, therefore, to repeat or to simplify the definition, perhaps as follows:

"Learning is change through activity." Or, "You cannot learn unless you are doing something."

It is desirable to take time out and emphasize that learning cannot take place without some activity.

C. Developing Products (Outcomes) of Learning

1. Following through on the definition of learning, the teacher may wish to develop an understanding of what can be learned, that is, what changes may take place as a result of learning. The following questions may be helpful:

"What can you learn?"

"What changes can take place in you as a result of learning?"

"What do you have now as a result of learning, through study, which you did not have before?"

"What do you learn when you read a book?"

"What learning takes place when you listen to a lecture or see a movie?"

"When you say you have learned something, what actually have you learned?"

2. The students generally will come forth with a variety of answers, as:

"Gain knowledge."

"Gain understanding."

"Better outlook on life."

Very early in this part of the discussion, a student may anticipate the teacher by saying that "learning can be mental or physical."

3. The chart below, drawn on the blackboard and filled in as the students give the answers, may be helpful:

Changes or Products of Learning

Mental (and Emotional)	Physical (Skills)
Knowledge	Walking
Understanding	Talking
Control of Emotions	Driving a car
Patterns of Behavior	Skills of any of the trades
Attitudes and Opinions	Habits (Physical)
Habits	

Note: The teacher may want to mention that even so called physical outcomes like walking, talking, or driving a car involve mental processes.

Part II—How to Learn Effectively

A. Summary of Part I

Before beginning this part of the lesson, it might be advisable to summarize what the students had learned in Part I. The points to be emphasized are:

1. Study is a *method* or a *way* of learning.
2. Learning is change that comes about through, or results from, *activity*.
3. The products of or changes that result from, learning may be mental or physical, as:
 - (a) The acquisition of knowledge or information.
 - (b) The acquisition of new attitudes and opinions, or the changing of old ones.
 - (c) Gaining understanding.
 - (d) The acquisition of skills, occupational and avocational.
 - (e) The acquisition of habits or new patterns of behavior, or the changing of old ones.

B. Analysis of the term activity in learning

(This part of the lesson, though not generally included in "How to Study," is extremely important, for it will give the students the necessary insight into, and an understanding of what learning actually is. It should make them more aware of the

importance of proper application.)

1. This part of the lesson may be introduced somewhat as follows:

"We have talked about learning through study. We now want to consider how learning (through proper study) can be made most effective."

2. The following questions may be helpful to stimulate student response:

"What makes learning possible?"

"How do you learn?"

"When you learn something, like acquiring new knowledge, or developing a new skill, just what do you do? What parts of your body are involved?"

3. The students may give replies like the following:

"Your brain is involved."

"You develop your mind."

"You learn by concentration (thinking)."

4. The students may eventually say:

"You learn through your senses."

If they do not, the teacher might say:

"Learning takes place through the various senses. In other words, you can learn through:

(a) Seeing

(b) Hearing

(c) Tasting

(d) Smelling

(e) Touching, feeling

(f) Moving (kinesthetic sense)."

If the teacher desires, he may have the students themselves list the different senses through which we learn.

C. *How to make Learning Effective*

1. In order to emphasize that learning results from activity involving one or more of the senses, the following comments may be helpful:

- (a) "If a man were to fall asleep and not awaken for twenty years, would he have any more knowledge or skills at the end of the time than he did before he went to sleep?" The answer, of course, is obvious. For the more advanced students, it may be necessary to mention parenthetically that even during sleep some of the senses are active. However, it can be emphasized

that if there is any learning under such conditions, it is mostly unconscious. The point to stress is that during sleep, the senses are basically so inactive that practically no learning takes place.

- (b) "All things being equal, would a person who is blind or has lost the use of any of his senses, learn as much as a person who has the full use of all his senses?" Most students will agree that an individual who lacks one or more of his senses will learn less. Some pupils may question this. They will make such comments as:

"A blind person hears better."

"A blind person is more sensitive."

- (c) It should, of course, be admitted that compensations by other senses may take place, but only if the individual makes an additional effort, by more concentrated attention or application. To illustrate this, the teacher might paraphrase the famous Biblical passage: "Some people look and see not, and some people listen and hear not." Pointing to some student in the room, the teacher could say: "Let's assume that you have an important engagement tonight, and your mind is preoccupied with thoughts about it. On the surface you may seem to be seeing me and hearing my voice, but actually, because your mind is elsewhere, the message carried through your senses to your brain is lost. As a result, you don't hear what I say." Follow-up questions on this might be:

"Hasn't something like this happened occasionally to all of us?"

"What conclusion can we draw from this?"

- (e) From the different replies that the students would probably make the teacher should then conclude: "Learning is most effective when the individual is alert, that is, when he is attentive (pays attention), and when he concentrates (his senses) on what is happening. In other words, through

concentrated attention, distracting influences (stimuli) are eliminated or reduced to a minimum. This results in more effective learning.¹

2. Additional facts may be presented to emphasize the general importance of attention, concentration, and repetition to learning, as:

About 70-80% of what the average person learns comes about through the sense of sight.

The teacher may want to draw important implications from this, by asking:

"What are the different learning activities possible through the use of the eye?"

Similar questions may be asked, pertaining to the other senses, as:

"What are the different learning activities involving hearing?"

"What are the different learning activities involved in touching, feeling, moving?"

"What are the different learning activities involving taste and smell?"

The laws of learning might also be introduced:

- (a) Learning is most effective if more than one sense is involved, as:
 - Seeing and hearing
 - Seeing and writing
 - Seeing, writing, and hearing
- (b) Learning is most effective if the same activity is *repeated*. The average

person forgets about 80% of what he reads after 24-48 hours (2 days). "Practice makes perfect." Correct practice should be stressed. This applies to mental as well as physical learning.

- (c) Learning is most effective when pleasure is anticipated with or accompanies the activity. This law may deserve extended discussion to bring out the fact that "experiencing success" may bring about pleasure in an activity previously not enjoyed.

Summarizing

This may be done by directing questions to the class or by the teacher himself summarizing the high-lights of the lesson. Significant points to be included in the summary:

1. Definition of study.
2. Definition of learning—emphasis on activity.
3. Kinds of learning—mental and physical.
4. Products (outcomes) of learning (skills, knowledge, understanding, appreciations, and attitudes.)
5. The role of the senses in learning.
6. Learning is most effective when:
 - a. There is concentration of attention.
 - b. Use of more than one sense.
 - c. Learning experience is repeated.
 - d. When pleasure is anticipated or accompanies an activity.

Visual and Other Aids

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER

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Educator's Guide to Free Films (Educator's Progress Service, Randolph, Wisconsin, 1952. \$6.00 per copy.) This is the twelfth annual edition of an extremely valuable guide to audio-visual aids for the classroom, especially helpful to teachers having limited funds for films or who lack the services of a central audio-visual aids department. This edition of 508 pages

lists and describes 2,332 free films, 798 of which are in the social studies—history, social problems, geography, transportation, safety, consumer education, and conservation. 250 of the social studies films are entries appearing for the first time in this edition.

FILMS

Atoms At Work, 10 minutes. 1 reel. Black and

white. Rental or sale. British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N. Y.

This timely film illustrates the many valuable peacetime uses of atomic energy available to mankind. Some of the strides made by England to harness this source of power for use in medicine and industry are shown here for the first time.

Project for Tomorrow. 20 minutes. Free loan. A. F. Films, Inc., 1600 Broadway, New York 9, N. Y.

Shows the development of 4-H clubs, sponsored by E.C.A., among the children of Austria.

Enjoy Holidays in Austria. 20 minutes. Free loan. Austrian State Tourist Department, 48 E. 48 St., New York 17, N. Y.

Takes an automobile trip through Austria—mountains, lakes, Salzburg, Vienna, etc.

Winter Paradise. 20 minutes. Free loan. Austrian State Tourist Dept.

Shows mountain scenery, skiing and winter festivals in Austria.

Defense of the Peace. 12 minutes. Film and Visual Information Division, United Nations, New York.

Depicts over-all organization and functions of the various branches of the U.N.

Grand Design. 9 minutes. United Nations Film and Information Div.

Shows problems faced by the U.N. and its specialized agencies from 1945-51.

Using the Bank. 11 minutes. Sound. Black and white. Sale. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Wilmette, Ill.

Shows the various services of a bank. Depicts also the bank vault, the use of a check, and the work of the Federal Reserve Bank in sorting and returning checks.

Valley of the Tennessee. 30 minutes. Sound. Black and white. Sale. United World Films, Inc., 1445 Park Ave., New York 29, N. Y.

This film is full of contrasts between a highly mechanized society and a neglected and retarded segment of American life.

Wastage of Human Resources. 10 minutes. Sound. Black and white. Sale. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films.

Reveals how human resources are wasted by the failure of society to provide healthful, safe,

and effective living conditions, and the great losses occasioned by disease, accidents, delinquency, unemployment, and old age.

What Is a Contract? 10 minutes. Sound. Black and white. Sale. Coronet Films, Coronet Bldg., Chicago, Ill.

Shows the basic elements of both oral and written contracts, the need for contracts in society, and their obligations upon the contracting parties.

What Is a Corporation? 10 minutes. Sound. Black and white. Sale. Coronet Films.

It develops the concept of corporate ownership, and examples of various corporations are included.

What Is Business? 10 minutes. Sound. Black and white. Sale. Coronet Films.

The film takes students around the world of commerce to see how business affairs are carried on.

Will Europe Unite? 20 minutes. Sound. Black and white. Sale. British Information Services.

Serves as a useful introduction to the problems of, and the necessity for, a united Europe.

Wise Buying. 10 minutes. Sound. Black and white. Sale. Col. Coronet Films.

Buying should be related to the needs of the purchasers. Four better-buying questions are supplied in the film.

Work of the Stock Exchange. 15 minutes. Sound. Col. Black and white. Sale. Coronet Films.

The film shows how land, labor, management, and money work together for mass production, which is the foundation of American economic life today.

The World Is Rich. 43 minutes. Sound. Black and white. Sale. Brandon Films, Inc., 200 W. 57 St., New York 19, N. Y.

The problems of world food supply are not new. One sees these basic problems as they existed at the end of the war, together with the background which antedated that situation.

World Trade for Better Living. 16 minutes. Sound. Black and white. Sale. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films.

This picture graphically illustrates how the exchange of goods and services between countries and the rest of the world contributes to

the welfare of various peoples.

Your Social Security. Sound. Black and white.

Free loan. Social Security, Federal Security Agency, Washington, D. C.

The film attempts to explain Social Security; who is protected, the contributions, payments and mechanisms of the system.

FILMSTRIPS

We Depend Upon Each Other (Working Today Series II). 48 frames. Black and white. Free loan. Gen. Mills Film Library, Gen. Mills, Inc., 400 Second Ave., So. Minneapolis, Minn.

The strip illustrates the interdependence between children and parents, between one occupation and another, between capital and labor, among communities and among nations.

Specialization. (Working Today Series, I). 47 frames. Black and white. Free loan. Gen. Mills, Inc.

Here one sees why man specializes in his occupations.

U.N. Builds for the Future. 49 frames. Text film Dept., McGraw Hill Co., 330 W. 42 St., New York 36, N. Y.

Shows how UNICEF helps needy children the world over.

The Dark Continent Wakens. 58 frames. Office of Educational Activities., *The New York Times*, Times Sq., New York 36, N. Y.

South of the Sahara Desert live more than 150 millions of Africans and 3 million Euro-

peans. It is about these people, the way they live, the way they work, and how they are ruled that this strip is concerned.

Christopher Columbus. 124 frames. Sale. Pictorial Events, 597 Fifth Ave., New York 17, N. Y.

This is a compelling presentation of how Christopher Columbus of Genoa, with a soul-stirring urge to reach out into new horizons entreats the Spanish Court in 1484 to aid him in his dream to locate a new water route to the Indies.

The Pilgrims and Puritan Life. 82 frames. Sale. Pictorial Events.

Reveals the unforgettable voyage of the Pilgrims on the Mayflower; the signing of the Mayflower Compact; relations with the Indians; Puritan Customs; home industries, costumes and life in the colonies.

Early Dutch Settlement in New York. 56 frames. Sale. Pictorial Events.

Shows the influence of Peter Stuyvesant, the last Dutch Governor of colonial New York; fur trade and barter with the Indians; Dutch homes, their cooking utensils, their transportation and their quaint costumes.

Last Days of Pompeii. 116 frames. Sale. Pictorial Events.

You live through the challenging moments of life in the city of Pompeii, which lay at the mouth of the Sarnus River near the Bay of Naples under the shadow of Mt. Vesuvius.

News and Comment

R. T. SOLIS-COHEN

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Puerto Ricans in Continental United States

The story of Puerto Ricans in the United States is told in *Strangers—and Neighbors: The Story of Our Puerto Rican Citizens* by Dr. Clarence Senior, Chief of the Migration Division of the Puerto Rican Labor Department in New York. This pamphlet is the nineteenth in the Freedom series published by the Anti-Defamation League of B'nai Brith.

Like their predecessors, the Puerto Ricans suffered from xenophobia, the fear of strang-

ers. This hate confronted those newly arrived in the United States.

Strangers eventually achieve the status of being neighbors and of emerging from the crucible of the melting pot as citizens.

Unlike previous newcomers to our shores, Puerto Ricans are all United States citizens. This, however, does not protect them from being subjected to the same kinds of discrimination suffered by those who came from other countries.

There are seven myths concerning Puerto Ricans in the United States which are factually disproved by Dr. Senior. They include:

1. "Millions of Puerto Ricans are coming to New York."

That this a gross exaggeration has been shown in a study made in 1948 and corrected in accordance with the preliminary figures of the 1950 Census by the Bureau of Applied Social Research, Columbia University. In the fall of 1951 between 300,000 and 350,000 persons had either been born in Puerto Rico or were children of native-born Puerto Ricans. The annual migration to Continental United States according to the official records of the United States Immigration and Naturalization Service ranges from 13,573 in 1945 to 49,346 in 1951.

About 80 per cent of these persons go to New York City like other immigrants and stay there for a generation before spreading to other parts of the nation.

One reason for the belief that there are more Puerto Ricans in New York than actually exist is the number of other Spanish-speaking persons, such as Cubans, Dominicans, Mexicans and other Latin-Americans.

2. The second myth is

"Puerto Ricans are mostly crude peasants."

There are really two migratory movements. The one which is urban—from the cities of Puerto Rico to New York and other American municipalities—is individual and family in character. In contrast to it the second is rural, transient and temporary. The latter moves back and forth with the harvests because the crop season of the continent coincides with the "dead" season in the sugar cane fields in Puerto Rico.

The Puerto Rican migratory farm laborers are recruited under an agreement between the United States Employment Service and the Puerto Rican Department of Labor in order to prevent both undercutting of domestic wage rates and exploitation of the migratory laborers.

3. The third myth states:

"The failures of Puerto Rico are the migrants to New York."

This is contrary to the facts because the

Puerto Ricans coming to the United States are above average in education, (illiteracy being negligible) occupational rating and skill. Puerto Ricans come not just for jobs but for better jobs.

4. The fourth myth, "They are all Negroes," implies that there is something wrong with being Negro! This is not in accord with our vaunted American belief in the equality of all without respect to race, religion or national origin. Such an attitude should be strongly condemned in practice as well as in principle.

As a matter of cold fact the Columbia University study found that 64 per cent of these migrants are white.

5. The fifth myth, "The majority are on relief," is not supported by the evidence of the Columbia University Study.

6. The sixth myth, "Puerto Ricans are brought here for political purposes," is equally untrue.

No evidence supporting this myth has ever been produced. The great amount of money which would be required for politicians to import these individuals makes this myth absurd.

7. The seventh myth is "Puerto Ricans are responsible for our increased juvenile delinquency."

However, juvenile delinquency usually tends to rise after a major war, particularly in slum areas. Moreover, although the delinquency among Negroes and Puerto Ricans has increased, this increase has been much less than the increase of the juvenile population in these two groups.

To inform the reader concerning the background of the migrating Puerto Ricans, Dr. Senior discusses the history of Puerto Rico, its strategic importance to the United States, its politics, economy and culture. The author then describes the living conditions and problems of Puerto Ricans living in New York. Some of these problems include discrimination, competition and personal freedom. Discrimination in Puerto Rico is limited to the inherited attitudes of upper class Spaniards, who do not judge a person's ability by the color of his skin. In New York, the newly arrived Puerto Ricans encounter the feeling that a white skin means innate superiority.

In contrast to Puerto Rico where the esthetic enjoyment of life is stressed, society in the United States is acquisitive and highly competitive. This adds to the Puerto Rican's difficulties in making adjustments.

Personal freedom may be increased for the women and adolescents of the new arrivals but its contrast with the closely united and strongly governed patriarchal family causes conflicts.

Dr. Senior goes beyond analysis and interpretation. He includes a survey of the community, labor and educational organizations which can help the new arrivals to become adjusted.

Other ways in which persons of good will can learn to contribute to this worthy work are described in the author's concluding chapter which also includes what the individual citizen can do to assist newly arrived persons to become acclimated, a listing of program aids, a bibliography for further reading and an Appendix entitled "How the Schools Can Help."

Community Education in Puerto Rico

This timely UNESCO publication, called *Community Education in Puerto Rico*, is a report prepared by the Division of Community Education, Department of Education, San Juan, Puerto Rico, on work accomplished from July 1, 1949 to October 15, 1951.

This pamphlet on community education resembles the fundamental education programs sponsored by the United Nations. However, it differs in that these people are not illiterate and learn chiefly to become self-dependent by relying on democratic methods.

Community education in Puerto Rico is addressed to adult citizens meeting in groups. Moving pictures, radio, books, pamphlets and posters, phonograph records, lectures and group discussion are to be included in the long range program.

The Puerto Rican experts in the Production Section, which is in charge of Audio-Visual Aids, discovered that most of the films made outside of Puerto Rico are unsuitable and "except in rare instances none of them can be adapted to the needs of Puerto Rico."

For the initiation of the program, the Production Section decided to use only three audio-visual media: posters (and maps when appro-

priate), booklets and motion pictures. The experts of this Section also decided to begin work in the rural area.

Great ingenuity was exercised by these officials to find a building for locating its headquarters. This was accomplished by remodeling a huge open warehouse in the old marketplace in San Juan. The Section now has functional headquarters serving as a central office of the Division as well as the place where films, books and posters are made. Personnel were recruited from those who had some basic creative and technical skills in allied fields as well as ability in basic education. Expensive equipment was either home-made or purchased second hand. Great care and intelligence have been exercised to produce films and books of excellent quality and of low cost.

The curriculum has two major purposes:

1. "a basic educational approach that can be purely informational on the one hand or 'attitude making' on the other, (although both conceivably can come within the scope of one product);
2. "to provide the stimulus and motivation for democratic group action in the solution of community problems."

The heart of the program is

"The stimulation of growth from civic unemployment to civic employment, from dependency to self-reliance within the communities of Puerto Rico."

A description of the selection of field personnel shows that this process was searching and thorough. The qualities sought in the candidates are revealed in a description of the successful ones:

"All forty were chosen because of the broad range of their participation in community activities and because of their belief in the basic principles of community-wide participation. In part also they were chosen because of their identification with the people and with the problems of the community in which they live and because of their fundamental belief in the people. They all have a deep respect for the individual, regardless of his station, and they all like to be with people and to discuss in a friendly man-

ner those subjects that seem to be of chief concern to the community. Finally and perhaps most important of all, each man was chosen because of his potential development. Possessing a free spirit, he has a capacity to un-learn certain things that might retard the democratic development of the community and to learn anew other things that will enhance progress. Through constant supervision and continuous in-service training seminars, the group organizer is in a position to examine old concepts and adopt new ones in an examination of his ideas and experiences with fellow group organizers and supervisors."

The training program for field personnel is practical and modern. The trainees were concerned with the various forces at work in the rural communities that make or mar the full democratic participation of all people. Discussions were held on such subjects as leadership, group discussion practices, and methods of obtaining group action. The trainees were also taught how to use the equipment. They were then sent into the field and were called group organizers. For the first two months each organizer studies the area of his work. He is responsible for about 26 communities. He becomes acquainted with the roads, the homes and the families in his territory. He hears first hand the various problems that people face in everyday living. The organizer goes everywhere and is at ease in the house of the teacher,

or the large farm owner, or the coffee worker or on a fisherman's boat. His aim is to become acquainted with as many people as possible and have them know him and the work of the new Division. He also has as two objectives:

"The organization in each community of a volunteer committee with the task of helping him distribute booklets on a house-to-house basis; and the selection of a site for the showing of films, centrally located for the majority of families in the community."

The organizer's intensive work in the communities is described. He serves as a catalytic agent. He listens and is friendly to people. He does not push them into decisions but serves as a guide assisting them to become self-reliant and sharing common responsibilities.

Ten community case studies are presented: A community garden, building a school room, improving a school lunchroom, digging a village well, building a bridge, dredging a fishing port, repairing a road, reconstructing a public bath-house, and installing a village water supply. Each case study presents the following information: its location, the problem, development, and present situation.

The booklet concludes with the work of the analysis and evaluating unit and an appendix which contains an annotated outline of the film, booklets and posters in each program. A second appendix deals with the administrative section of the division.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

DAVID W. HARR

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61 Years in the Schoolroom. By Lawrence Hurst. Boston: Meador Publishing Company, 1952. Pp. 255. \$2.50.

In an era when there is much educational controversy, it is refreshing to read a book which does not deal with controversies. Dr. Hurst began his education in the era of the McGuffey reader and completed his teaching

in the age of television. During this entire period of his association with education he maintained his sense of humor, a genuine friendliness, a real understanding of young people and was always conscious of the fact that education in its last analysis is the contact between personalities.

Dr. Hurst's experiences included all phases

of education from teaching in a one-room school to the headship of a department in a college. He entered into every phase of his experiences with energy and enthusiasm and made real contributions to those with whom he associated although he is quite modest concerning them.

Extensive travel experience with the ability to observe intelligently not only added interest to the book, but also made valuable contributions to his teaching.

This book is not intended to give a comprehensive history of education, neither does the author attempt to define any specific educational philosophy. It does describe rather vividly the experiences of a teacher in an era of American education which is now closed. It also describes the career of one who lived significantly and taught successfully. Because of this it will be read with pleasure by those who are now in the classroom.

WALTER H. MOHR

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Calling All Citizens. By Robert Rienow with the editorial assistance of Howard R. Anderson. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1952. Pp. xxxiii, 690. \$3.10.

This text for senior high school has three parts. The first deals with guidance, personal and vocational, and has a smaller unit on the family and the community. Part Two goes into the development of our state and national governments, and such topics as public opinion, political parties, voting, and the functioning of the lawmaking bodies and courts. The third section with the title, "Working Things out Together," includes the problems of crime, health and safety, production, consumption, conservation, housing, and social and international security.

Each chapter has an informal and easy-to-read discussion of the problem. The pictures, graphs, and charts are timely. In each chapter the discussion is followed by a section, "Now It's Up To You," that is rich in suggestions, with questions for discussion, aids for gaining skills, things to do, and books for reading. Included in the activity suggestions is what

is called, "The Local Textbook," calling for the use of community resources.

Throughout the entire course on citizenship, the emphasis is on action, stressing the idea that the student is a citizen now. The plan of the text recognizes that the students must be made aware of contemporary events and problems by constant touch with newspapers, periodicals, and public activities within the range of their experiences.

IRA KREIDER

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Social Psychology: An Analysis of Human Behavior. By Leonard W. Doob. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1952. Pp. xix, 583. \$5.00.

Social Psychology. By Robert E. L. Faris. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1952. Pp. vii, 419. \$5.00.

That complete agreement on the content and method of social psychology has not as yet been attained by the practitioners in this field is quite apparent from a comparison of these two books. Doob's approach still tends to be that of the physiologically oriented experimental psychologist. Though he does not explicitly endorse Floyd Allport's dictum that only individuals are real, and that such terms as "group" and "institution" are meaningless abstractions, he seems unable to reject this notion. For him social psychology "concerns itself with the behavior of people in a social setting, and especially in groups" but he appears not to realize fully that all significant behavior of "people" is social in nature.

The extensive reliance upon experimental data constitutes one of the most valuable features of Doob's book. In a sense, practically ever chapter may be regarded as a collection, organization, and critical interpretation of the significant experiments relevant to the chapter heading. The selection of topics to be treated and the extent of treatment of each are more closely related to the availability of experimental data than to intrinsic significance. Possibly as a consequence of the methods used in the selection and presentation of the materials, the work appears somewhat lacking in

coherence and unity of presentation. For this reason, it may commend itself as collateral reading rather than as a text to those teachers who are without an organizational plan of their own to impose upon the materials.

Faris' work is squarely in the Dewey, Mead, Cooley, and Ellsworth Faris tradition in social psychology, and it is here recommended not only as the most recent but also as one of the ablest and most systematic presentations of the point of view of this tradition. What this point of view is can be gleaned from one or two quotations: "Social processes are responsible for human nature and personality as we recognize them." "Human psychology, then, is social psychology."

For the student who has been steeped in physiological psychology, Faris' discussion of the role of consciousness in behavior, and of the nature of motivation (a topic which Doob rather tended to avoid) will be found most revealing and stimulating. And all who are still under the spell of an uncritical "I.Q.ism" should read the chapter on the social factor in ability.

This review probably errs in emphasizing the contrasts between these two texts. Actually, they traverse much common ground. They are not so much antithetical as complementary. The student who reads both should gain a pretty well rounded notion of the status of social psychology as a science at mid-century.

JERRY A. NEPRASH

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Race Relations in Ancient Egypt—Greek, Egyptian, Hebrew, Roman. By S. Davis. Philosophical Library, 1952. Pp. xiii, 176. \$4.50.

The author, a member of the faculty of the University of the Witwatersrand, in producing this little volume, has evidently performed a prodigious amount of research. After reading the work and looking over the rather formidable bibliography, one wonders that there is so much to be said about Ptolemaic Egypt. For it is Ptolemaic Egypt which is principally the theme—not the still more ancient Egypt of the Pharaohs.

Yet, as the author shows, names and events

are plentiful enough in that partially-Hellenized land which gave to the world Euclid, Ptolemy the astronomer, Hypatia, Cleopatra, and St. Augustine.

With the invasion and conquest of North Africa by Alexander's Greeks and Macedonians, the Greek language became the official medium of intercommunication. Greek was still spoken by many in that part of the world for some time after the conversion of the population to Islam.

Regarding the contribution of the papyrus texts to an understanding of the Ptolemaic period, Dr. Davis writes:

The most significant thing about the papyrus texts found in Egypt is the way they illustrate the history of Hellenic culture in what was a very un-Hellenic environment, and the development and gradual transformation of that culture through successive generations. (38)

By the time of Christ, Aramaic was the language of Palestine and Syria. Hebrew was thus a dead language, and for Jews scattered throughout the Greek world, the Greek idiom had become the vernacular. As many of the Jews were unable to read their own Scriptures in Hebrew, from time to time, portions of Israel's Holy Writ were translated into Greek. Eventually came the Septuagint, a Greek-language version of the Hebrew Old Testament. This, it seems, was the first notable adoption of Greek as a medium of expression for Jewish literature. St. Paul's Bible was this same Septuagint. It has greatly influenced later scriptural translations.

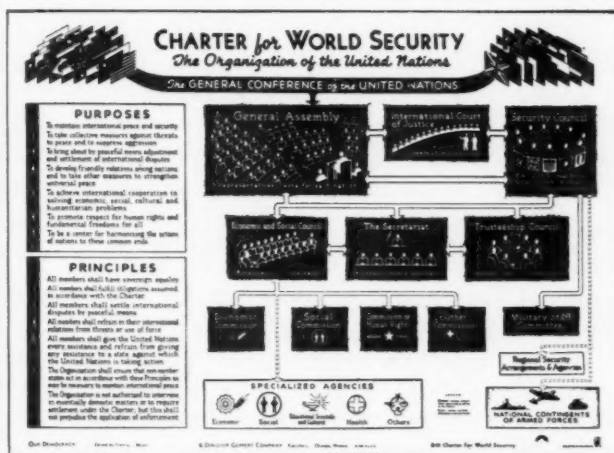
To meticulous anthropologists, the title of the book under review may appear unhappily chosen. In reality, the activities of only one race are considered, that being the white. Dr. Davis' "races" are sub-races, or racial stocks, such as Aryan, Semitic, and Hamitic. Negroes are not mentioned, except indirectly, as in the following sentence:

"Generally speaking, in ancient times, there was no colour-bar." (34)

And, after all, these "races," or "sub-races," are largely culture groups, as can be abundantly shown from Dr. Davis' pages.

This book will prove useful as a reference work. It is readable and authoritative. Only,

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the first word in the title should be not "race," but "cultural."

J. F. SANTEE

Oregon College of Education
Monmouth, Oregon

Social Treatment in Probation and Delinquency. Second Edition, By Pauline V. Young. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc, 1952. Pp. xxvi, 536. \$7.00.

This is a treatise and case book discussing in detail the techniques of probation and delinquency control as essential social services increasingly rendered by the state.

Part I gives a basis for the comprehensive study of delinquency cases, presenting sample outlines for the making of social studies and for the recording of the results. Part II discusses the legal aspects of probation, including the report to the court, the hearing, the set-up of the juvenile court, and the institutions for juvenile offenders. Part III discusses social therapy—the treatment of maladjusted youth. Part IV is concerned with community resources—the police, recreation facilities, school, social

agencies, and community organization.

The book should prove an excellent text in the special field of social work to which it is devoted. It should be most valuable for teachers, whose own special responsibilities are closely related. Education and correction have often a common, and always a related problem. The reading of this book should make teachers much better informed concerning the methods and organization of probation.

While the author writes from the sociological point of view, she draws also on psychology, psychiatry, law, and education. The case materials are extensive and well integrated with the text. The book assumes some general knowledge of the etiology of juvenile delinquency; the emphasis is upon the techniques and organization for treatment.

WAYNE C. NEELY

Hood College
Frederick, Maryland

NOTES ON CURRENT BOOKS

Living in our Democracy. By Vanza Nielsen Devereaux and Homer Ferris Aker. San

Francisco, California: Harr Wagner Publishing Company, 1952. Pp. Unit V, 562. \$2.40.

A basic or supplementary text for Junior High School Social Studies classes.

This text is easy to read and understand as the vocabulary is controlled, the organization of material is exceptionally well done and type is large and well spaced. Hundreds of pictures and charts are included in the text which describe our federal, state and local government in action. Provision is made for individual differences at the end of each unit through unit summaries, suggested activities, bibliographies, and audio-visual aids. A text that should prove very useful in Junior High School Social Studies.

Prelude to History. By Adrian Coates. New York: Philosophical Library, 1952. Pp. x, 289. \$4.75.

A book written on early man, which provides the general reader with a critical summary of the present state of prehistoric studies. It includes and discusses the origin of art and religion, the development of the incest taboo and in more general terms the relation of ourselves to our human past.

HELPFUL CLASSROOM AIDS PAMPHLETS

Operation Fix-up, Redevelopment Authority of the City of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. Copies free. Write to the Authority, City Hall, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

Focus on Foreign Policy, Volume 48. Annual Proceedings of the Middle States Council For the Social Studies. 1950-51. James E. Blakemore, Editor. Price \$1.00. Middle States Council for the Social Studies, Great Neck High School, Great Neck, New York.

Diplomatic Relations with the Vatican. Edited by Charles Keenan. Price 25 cents. The American Press Incorporated, New York 17, New York.

Modern British History 1485-1939. Price \$1.00. George Philip & Son, 32, Fleet Street, London, England.

Careers for Tomorrow. A guide to vocations,

by Carrington Shields. Price 1.50. Civic Education Service Incorporated, Washington D. C.

Teaching Tests to accompany America's History, by Lewis Paul Todd and Merle Curtis. Price 75 cents. Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, N. Y.

Workbook Guide to the World's History, by Ruth O. M. Anderson. Price 75 cents. Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, N. Y.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Dictionary of Mind, Matter and Morals. By Bertrand Russell. New York: Philosophical Library Incorporated, 1952. Pp. 290. \$5.00.

This exhaustive work offers more than one thousand definitions and opinions.

Land Marks in the History of Education. By T. L. Jarman. New York: Philosophical Library, 1952. Pp. xviii, 323. \$4.75.

This book shows how Western Education is historically a part of a process which originated with the Greeks.

Essentials of American Government. By Frederic A. Ogg and P. Orman Ray. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1952. Pp. xlvii, 774. \$5.00. Revised Edition.

Introduction to Modern Economics. By Leland Rex Robinson, John F. Adams and Harry L. Dillin, Editors. New York: The Dryden Press, 1952. Pp. xlv, 942. 5.75.

Trans-Atlantic Exchanges. By Yvonne F. French. New York: Library Publishers, 1952. Pp. 253. \$3.75.

Crosscurrents of Anglo-American opinion in the 19th century.

The Siberian Fiasco. By Clarence A. Manning. New York: Library Publishers, 1952. Pp. xix, 210. \$3.75.

Turkish Crossroads. By Bernard Newman. New York: Philosophical Library Incorporated, 1952. Pp. xii, 258. \$4.75.
A new picture of Turkey.

Norwegian-American Studies and Records. By J. Jorgen Thompson, Editor. Northfield, Minnesota: The Lund Press, 1952. Pp. 184. \$2.50.

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